COLLEGIATE COURSE

FOR HOME STUDY

EDITED BY
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ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY

WITH QUESTIONS AND AIDS

VOLUME III

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PREFACE

Since the appearance of the luminous Report of the Committee of Seven, various excellent text-books of ancient and modern history have been issued, which have supplied the need of secondary schools for condensed, well-arranged courses in this important branch of study. For collegiate work such books are not sufficient. A fuller exposition of the subject is needed, such as was contained in the historical text-books of an earlier period.

Among the educational classics of America few have possessed more merit or have embodied the results of more devoted and sympathetic study than the great volume of "Universal History" prepared by Emma Willard. To recast this work in modern mold, to eliminate all that later criticism would pronounce unavailable, and to supplement the original text with the results achieved in the research and the critical labors of recent decades, is no small task. It has been undertaken in order that the student may have the benefit of Mrs. Willard's thoroughness, which won for her so enviable a place among American educators and writers.

In the rearrangement of the matter, regard has been had for the suggestions contained in the Committee's Report, and for the usages of teachers of history at the present time. The story of Greece, the story of Rome, and the story of the Jews are presented separately from beginning to end. The beginnings of modern nations are traced in the mediæval period. From the time of Charlemagne the story of the nations cannot be thus completely separated into individual histories. The vast, shadowy entity known as the "Holy Roman Empire" included, at times, many lands and peoples, which must be considered together. The history of Europe now divides itself into periods. The time of the Crusades, the time of the Hundred Years' War, and the time of the Reformation bring us to the treaty of Westphalia, at the close of the Thirty Years' War, which many deem the true beginning

of modern history. The struggle of the British against the tyranny of the Stuarts, the reign of Louis XIV in France, the rise of Prussia and Russia, the French Revolution, and the career of Napoleon Bonaparte require individual treatment, and mark eras in European history.

While no attempt has been made to fix the exact limits of eras, they have been kept in view in the individual treatment of British and French history, and these have not been presented continuously. American history has been eliminated, as constituting a study in itself; and a fuller treatment of British history, with its philosophical import and its relation to literature and social life, is reserved for another volume.

VOL. III.

ANCIENT ORIENTAL NATIONS.
HISTORY OF THE JEWS (WILLARD).
HISTORY OF GREECE (WILLARD).
HISTORY OF ROME (WILLARD).
MEDIÆVAL HISTORY (WILLARD).
MODERN HISTORY (WILLARD).
MANGNALL'S SUMMARY OF FRENCH HISTORY.
COLLIER'S GREAT NAMES IN HISTORY.

Emma Hart Willard, one of the most eminent of American educators, was born in Berlin, Conn., in 1787, and died in Troy, N. Y., in 1870. At the age of twenty she assumed charge of an academy in Middlebury, Vt. Through her efforts the State of New York appropriated money in aid of schools for women. In 1821 she became principal of the famous seminary at Troy, N. Y.

She was a voluminous writer of history, and she produced some popular poems and miscellaneous writings. Chief among her historical works was the "Universal History in Perspective."

How History Should Be Studied.

History cultivates the judgment by leading the pupil to see the relation between cause and effect, as cause and effect appear in human affairs. We do not mean by this that his attention should be directed solely to great moving causes, or that he should study what is sometimes called the "philosophy of history,"—far from it; nor do we mean that time should be consumed in discussing the meaning of facts, when the facts themselves are not known. But history has to do with the becoming of past events,—not simply with what was, but with what came to be,—and in studying the simplest forms of narrative even the average pupil comes to see that one thing leads to another; he begins quite unconsciously to see that events do not simply succeed each other in time, but that one event grows out of another, or rather out of a combination of many others.—*The Committee of Seven.*

We are to read history actively, not passively; to esteem our own life the text, and books the commentary. As we read, we must become Greek, Roman, Turk, priest, king, martyr, and executioner. We must fasten these images to some reality in our secret experience, or we shall learn nothing rightly.—*Emerson.*

The period from Charlemagne to the Revival of Learning has a strongly marked character, almost a personality of its own, and by a selection of proper facts some of the main characters may be brought home to the knowledge of the high school pupils. The teacher or text-writer who attempts this method must naturally proceed with great caution, getting general ideas before the student by a judicious use of concrete facts and illustrations, and not failing to give some of the more important events and dates that mark the period. He will probably find that the most characteristic feature of the age is the unbroken dominance of the Roman church, and should, therefore, bring out clearly the essential features of its organization, and explain the methods by which it exercised control in all departments of private life. If this is done, as it can

and should be, with care and impartiality, the pupil will receive a valuable lesson in historic truthfulness and objectivity, at the same time that he comes to appreciate one of the great moving forces of European history.

This method of treating Continental history can be carried throughout the Reformation period by remembering that while the period marks the end of the Middle Ages it also forms the basis for modern European history. This epoch must, therefore, be taught with both points of view in mind. The main aspects of the time must be brought broadly before the pupil, and he must be led to see that the sixteenth century is a century of transition; that the old order has been swept away; that religious, political, material, intellectual, and social life has been profoundly affected, not only by the teachings of Luther and Calvin, but by the development of the printing press, the use of gunpowder, the voyages of Magellan and Drake, and the change in economic values. The wars of religion mark the last efforts to establish united Christendom; and although the treaty of Westphalia (1648) seems well within the sphere of modern history, it may not improperly be selected as the end of this era of transition.—*The Committee of Seven.*

Introduction.

I. Prehistoric Man.

For how long a period man has existed upon the earth is not known, but it must have been many thousands of years. The oldest relics found by antiquarians and studied by ethnologists carry us back to what is called the Stone Age, when the manufactures of men were limited to rude weapons and implements of stone. To this age succeeded the Bronze Age, in which these articles were fashioned of metal, the metal first used having been a mixture of copper and tin, to which the name bronze is given. The working of iron came later.

These ages belong to no fixed periods. Peoples advanced with widely varying rapidity. Some few barbarians in remote parts of the world are still in the Stone Age.

II. Legend and History.

Legend naturally precedes written history in the case of all ancient peoples. It is not possible now to sift the ancient legends and determine how much of them is founded upon fact and how much is due to the play of fancy. But all ancient legends have a value in throwing light upon the habits, beliefs, and conditions of the peoples among whom they arose.

III. Historic Truthfulness.

It was formerly the custom for writers of history to supply conjectural dates for the founding of very ancient cities and for events belonging to periods of which we do not possess exact information. This practice has been generally abandoned, and writers of history are now frank to confess the limitations of attainable knowledge.

IV. The Earliest Peoples of History.

The earliest peoples with whom history deals are the Egyptians, Hindus, Assyrians and Babylonians, Phœnicians, Persians, and Chinese. These were all Oriental nations, characterized by Oriental despotism and the manners of the East. Their arts became fixed, and their advancement was limited, though it excites our wonder and admiration.

The earliest peoples of Europe with whom history deals were the Greeks and the Romans, to whom we are so greatly indebted. The study of the history of these peoples from the most ancient times is deeply interesting, and is of great value in the lessons which it offers to the world of to-day.

V. What History Teaches.

It is designed to present in this volume brief summaries of what is known of the ancient Oriental monarchies, and to set forth with some detail the story of the Greeks and of the Romans, together with the Bible story of the Jews.

The story of the Greeks is that of an intellectual, imaginative, inventive, brave, and progressive people, divided into many tribes and nations, characterized by a poetic interpretation of nature and a marked fidelity to religious ideas, but diverse and disunited.

The story of Rome presents to us a people singularly gifted with a genius for government and for organization through conquest, who from their modest holdings about the city of Rome advanced step by step to the conquest of the known world, building up a vast republic, then exchanging their liberal principles for an imperial despotism, under which, eventually, they were overthrown by the whelming tides of barbarians which descended upon them.

The familiar story of the Jews presents a people strongly imbued from the earliest days with religious ideals, which gave character to their whole career to the time when they were overthrown by the all-conquering Roman power. It is to be noted that the Jewish, the Christian, and the Mohammedan religions all arose among the descendants of Abraham.

VI. The Great Races.

The Aryan race includes the Greeks, Italians, Kelts, Teutons, and Slavs in Europe, and the Hindus and Persians in Asia.

The peoples of Germany, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, and of large parts of Austria, Belgium, and Switzerland, are of Teutonic origin. The peoples of Ireland, Scotland, Wales, France, and other parts of western Europe are descended from the ancient Kelts. The Russians, Poles, and Bohemians are Slavonic. Leaving out the Hungarians, Turks, Basques, Fins, and Lapps, the whole of Europe is occupied by Aryan peoples, who guide the destinies of the world. The history of the Aryan race is the history of the nations most important in their enduring influence.

The Semitic race has played an important part in the world in certain periods of history. The Assyrians, Babylonians, and Phœnicians were Semitic peoples of old time. The Jews, the Arabs, and the Ethiopians belong to this race. The ancient Egyptians belonged to the Hamitic race. The Tatars, or Tartars, belong to the Turanian race, which at times has startled the nations by its ruthless conquests, but which has contributed little or nothing to civilization and culture.

The remaining races have not figured prominently in history.

QUESTIONS.—Is it known how long man has lived upon the earth? What is meant by the Stone Age?—by the Bronze Age? What precedes written history in the case of ancient peoples? Of what value are ancient legends? What is the attitude of modern writers of history in regard to conjectural dates? Mention the most ancient peoples with whom history deals? Who were the earliest peoples of Europe whose history is known? What were the leading characteristics of the Greeks?—of the Romans?—of the Jews? What have we derived from the Greeks?—from the Romans?—from the Jews? What races have been great in history? What is the greatest race? What peoples of today belong to the Aryan race? What two branches of this race are in Asia, and what five in Europe? What great peoples of the past have been of the Semitic race? What is said of the Hamitic race?—of the Turanian?

Ancient Oriental Nations.

I. Divisions of History.

The history of the world may be divided in various ways. One scheme is to separate it into two grand divisions, taking for the dividing line the beginning of the Roman Empire under Augustus. Fourteen centuries ago men were led by promptings of piety to reckon the years from the birth of Jesus of Nazareth, a contemporary of that emperor; but it was then possible only to approximate the time of that remote event. Upon this system of chronology all dates are now based, except in the Mahometan world, which counts its years from the Hegira, or flight of Mahomet (A. D. 622). With us, every date is understood to be B. C. (before Christ) or A. D. (in the year of our Lord).

This division, however convenient, is not very logical, since the Roman Empire was but one of several successive empires of the ancient world, and its fall, four and three-quarters centuries later, caused a very great change in the conditions of the peoples of the civilized world. It has been very generally held that the first division, *ancient history,* should extend to the fall of the Roman Empire; that a period of about a thousand years following that event should be known as the *middle ages;* and that *modern history* should begin with the time of Columbus, which was a period of great changes.

At the present time, however, it is customary in the work of the schools to designate ancient history as the period extending from the most ancient times to the crowning of Charlemagne, in the year 800.

Charlemagne built up the first great empire ruled by Northern men. He was a Teuton, or German; and from his time the Northern peoples of Europe have been a very powerful element in the government of the world, whereas the Southern peoples had been dominant in the ages preceding.

II. Sources of the Most Ancient History.

The earliest written history of Europe was not recorded before the time of the first Olympiad of the Greeks (776 B. C.). The Greek Herodotus (the fifth century B. C.) is called "the father of history," but much that he wrote about other peoples than the Greeks was gathered from hearsay.

Modern archæologists have unearthed and read enduring records carved upon monuments or written on tablets and walls in ancient lands of the Orient; and within recent years our knowledge of ancient Egypt and Assyria has been greatly extended. This knowledge carries us much farther back in time than the earliest records of Europe. It is with European history, however, that we have most to do, since this is of the greatest importance to the modern world.

III. The Egyptians.

Probably the most ancient records in the world are those of the ancient Egyptians; yet it is only within the century past that scholars have been able to read them. For untold centuries this knowledge was hidden from men, until the method of deciphering the hieroglyphics was discovered by modern philologists.

Whence came the original inhabitants of Egypt, no one knows. The people of the long, narrow valley of the Nile attained to an astonishing degree of civilization, as attested by their mighty pyramids of stone and by their colossal temples, of which the ruins tell us. Probably as far back as nine thousand years ago their kingdom was established. The legendary Me'nes is supposed to have been the first king.

The history of ancient Egypt is divided into three periods. There was the Old Kingdom, with its capital at Memphis, which lasted to 2100 B. C. Dynasty succeeded dynasty in a long line, of which we have only the names or numbers. In the fourth dynasty was built the great Pyramid of Gizeh (ghe'zeh), with other notable structures; Ptah Ho'tep wrote moral axioms and proverbs; huge sculptures were chiseled; a portion of the famous "Book of the Dead" was produced.

In the eleventh dynasty the capital was changed to the "Hundred-gate Thebes" mentioned by Homer. The great reservoir of

the Nile at Lake Mœris was constructed, the obelisk of Heliopolis was erected, and the power of the nation was extended.

There followed a conquest of the country by a rude band of warriors who are known as the Shepherd Kings, of whose origin nothing has been learned. These despots were hated by the people, and under their rude sway the arts declined. The period of the Hyk'sos, or Shepherd Kings, constitutes the *middle period,* which extends from about 2100 B. C. to the time of their expulsion, about 1700 B. C. Of this middle period we have but little information, since the people took no pride in recalling it. It ended with the seventeenth dynasty.

The third period extended from about 1700 B. C. to the final overthrow of the nation by the Persians, in 525. During this period native princes ruled, the arts flourished, and conquests were made. Seti erected grand temples. Ram'ses, or Sesos'tris, was probably the Pharaoh of Scripture who oppressed the Israelites enslaved in his realm. Egypt was the foremost nation in the world.

The religion of the Egyptians was a monstrous worship of living animals or of their effigies. Their strong belief in the immortality of the soul led the Egyptians to preserve the bodies of the dead as mummies.

The architecture of Egypt, like that of other great peoples living upon plains, was colossal. The Egyptians made paper and glass. They cultivated music. In painting they did not advance beyond a certain point, which they reached early.

From the overthrow of the native rulers of Egypt by the Persians to the present day, the land of the Nile has been ruled by foreigners.

IV. The Hindus.

The people of India belong to the Aryan race, and at some prehistoric time separated themselves from the other branches of that primitive stock (wherever its home may have been), entering India from the northwest. Probably this migration was about 2000 years B. C. As Aryans they were worshipers of many gods. They possessed the decimal system, and some rude arts. Under the influence of Brahman priests, they came to believe in the transmigration of souls.

A great reformer, Buddha, rose among them in the fifth cen-

tury B. C. His religion did not maintain itself at home, though it was accepted in other Oriental lands, and was degraded into gross idolatry.

India was early cursed with the system of caste, with its paralyzing influences. The ancient language of India was the Sanskrit, which is much studied and admired by scholars to-day.

Of the ancient Hindu literature the most notable productions are the Vedic hymns and two epic poems of very great length.

From of old, India has been a land of great wealth, in the hands of a few. *It has passed through thousands of years of misgovernment, a sad instance of the blighting influences of a low form of religion and a specious social order.*

V. The Assyrians and Babylonians.

A very early civilization was developed on the plains watered by the Tigris and the Euphrates. The Assyrians occupied the upper river region, and the Babylonians the lower. The early history of this region is obscure. The Tower of Babel, described in the Bible, was the beginning, it would seem, of Babylon, the great capital of the Chaldean land.

Sargon, a great king, is said to have lived in the 38th century B. C.

The Assyrians, who probably went out from Babylon, built the great city of Nineveh, which in time excelled the mother city, and then conquered the latter. Assyria entered upon a career of conquest, and rose to be the chief power in Asia. Later, the Babylonians recovered their lost power.

Nebuchadnezzar (died 562 B. C.) and Belshazzar are familiar in Bible story. The latter was overthrown by the Persians under Cyrus the Great, in 538 B. C., and the nation was never restored.

The Babylonian architecture was massive and grand. The Chaldeans excelled in astronomy, having made a careful record of the phenomena of the stars for many centuries. From them we derive the division of the month into weeks, and the division of the day into hours and minutes. They possessed the cuneiform system of writing, and wrote upon tablets of clay. They had great libraries, in which were books of history, of science, and of law.

They accumulated great wealth, and their mode of life was luxurious. Their immense buildings were adorned with sculp-

tures of colossal size, which, while very crude compared with the perfect work of the Greeks, exhibited a considerable degree of skill. Notable among their sculptures are the winged bulls with human heads.

Polygamy and polytheism were features of Babylonian life.

In the ruins of Nineveh and Babylon to-day are found fragments of the old records written upon the enduring tablets. These are deciphered by eminent Assyriologists, and possess great interest. The Assyrian account of the Deluge is especially interesting. The Assyrians and Babylonians worshiped especially Ba'al and Astar'te, representing the sun and moon, with gross and revolting rites.

VI. The Phœnicians.

The Phœnicians were a Semitic people who settled on the narrow and rugged shores at the east end of the Mediterranean Sea at some time before the beginning of recorded history, and who developed manufacturing and commerce to a greater extent than any other nation of antiquity.

Discovering that the blood of a certain shellfish could be made into a brilliant dye, they kept a close monopoly of it, and with its aid produced the rich robes of kings of many nations. Excelling in the use of bronze, and displaying unusual ingenuity in securing the copper and tin required in its composition, they did a vast business in supplying weapons and metallic implements of every sort to the peoples near and far. Acquiring in some way the art of glass making, they manufactured glassware in great quantities. Caravans came over every road to their shore to trade; and they built boats and pushed their trade enterprises farther and farther down the Mediterranean Sea. They even passed through the Straits of Gibraltar and sailed upon the open ocean in their search for tin, which they found in great quantities in Britain ("The Isles afar off").

They established Gadir (afterwards Gades and now Cadiz) in Spain ("Tarshish"). They founded colonies in Cyprus, in Sicily, on the African coast, and elsewhere.

Their two great cities were Sidon and Tyre, of which we read in the Bible.

One of the greatest services of the Phœnicians to the world was *the development of a purely phonetic alphabet, which they*

carried with them to many nations with which they traded, thus scattering everywhere a knowledge of letters.

Their greatest colony was Carthage, originally built where the city of Tunis now stands. Carthage is said to have been founded by the Phœnician Queen Dido, and romance has added greatly to the fame of this legendary character. Carthage was probably founded in the eighth century before Christ, yet the Latin poet Vergil does not scruple in his Æneid to make this personage a contemporary of the legendary Æneas, who belongs to a period probably three centuries earlier. Carthage, like the cities in Phœnicia, was famous for its maritime enterprise and for its wealth. Like the mother country, Carthage was successful in planting colonies. In the course of time Rome became a rival of Carthage, and because of the greater valor and patriotism of its people, was able to meet Carthage successfully in arms.

The three terrible wars between Rome and Carthage are known as the Punic Wars, the word *Punic* being a corruption of *Phœnician*. These wars invested the history of Rome with exceptional interest through a long period. The third war ended with the complete destruction of Carthage as a maritime city; for its inhabitants were compelled to give up the place to the flames and to retire to the interior. The mother country was absorbed in the conquests made by Alexander the Great. While the Phœnicians as a people passed away completely, they left a strong impress upon the civilization of the world. *Carthage was an oligarchy, without the strength of either an absolute monarchy or a true republic.*

The religion of these countries was the terrible worship of Ba'al, or Mo'loch, to whom were offered human sacrifices, especially of children, who were devoted to the flames.

VII. The Medes and Persians.

The Medes and Persians were agricultural people of one and the same stock who came into notice with the decline of the Assyrian monarchy. Cyax'ares, of Media, overwhelmed the Assyrians about 606 B. C. Cyrus the Great, King of Persia, overthrew the Medes about 557, conquered the Greek cities on the west coast of Asia Minor, and overthrew Babylon, which event enabled the captive Jews to return from that city to their own land (538 B. C.) His successor, Camby'ses, conquered Egypt. Darius suc-

ceeded to the government of the vast Persian empire, and sought to conquer the Greeks; but his forces were defeated at Marathon by a tenth of their number. Xerx'es led in person a second invasion of Greece, but his forces were defeated on sea and on land. Under later monarchs the Persian power waned, until (in 333 B. C.) it was overthrown by the Greek conqueror Alexander.

The Persians believed in the unity of God, which was represented to them by the sun. They were called fire-worshipers.

Light and darkness, good and evil, were personified by the opposite characters Or'mazd and Ah'riman. They seem to have had a high conception of the Deity. They tolerated no idols. Their religious and moral precepts, which have come down to us in the "Avesta," are elevated in tone. This is all that we have of their literature. The priests, or Magi, of the Persians were held in high esteem. Persian art was borrowed from the Babylonians. The sculpture is rude, and the figures are heavy.

The Persians seem to have added nothing to science and little to literature, but they cultivated elegance of manners and aimed at magnificence in their architecture.

VIII. The Chinese.

The Chinese belong to the Turanian race, and for thousands of years have occupied a vast portion of eastern Asia. Their ancient writings tell of a great flood which occurred twenty-two hundred years before Christ. Their records, however, are few and untrustworthy up to the twelfth century B. C., in which the Chow dynasty began.

In the year 255 B. C. the Tsin dynasty reunited the country, which had been torn by civil war and invaded by the Tartars. This dynasty built the Great Wall of China, which extends for fifteen hundred miles over hills and valleys, crossing rivers in its way. It is said that this dynasty caused the historical books of the preceding period to be destroyed.

The Han dynasty began with the year 206 B. C., and continued about four centuries. During its rule Buddhism was introduced from India.

The Chinese were wholly isolated from the nations of Europe and western Asia in ancient times, and do not appear in their history. They were, as they are to-day, a thoughtful, industrious,

patient people, given to living in the past, and showing little enterprise or desire for change. They have no alphabetical writing, their thousands of different characters representing each a different idea. They are accredited with having invented gunpowder and the art of printing, but they did not carry these inventions on to any useful end. Their religion is a debasing superstition, and their government a despotism.

The great Chinese philosopher Confucius (Kong-Fu-Tse) lived in the sixth century before Christ. His teachings are generally wise and moral. They have greatly influenced the lives of the masses of the people.

QUESTIONS.—What is the starting point in the chronology of the great nations of today? Has it anything other than convenience to recommend it? From what date do the Mahometans reckon the years? How has history been generally separated into three general divisions? What is the objection to this? How far is ancient history carried by the educators of today? What was the peculiar significance of the coronation of Charlemagne? When was writing begun in Europe? Who was the Father of History? In what language did he write? How have his accounts of Asiatic and African peoples been superseded, in recent decades? What history is of greatest importance to the modern world? What are probably the most ancient of existing records? Into what three periods is the history of ancient Egypt divided? Mention three important events in the time of the first eleven dynasties. What is said of the Shepherd Kings? With what dynasty did their power end? What is said of the third period? Mention the names of two famous rulers of this time. What is said of the religion of the Egyptians? What is said of the architecture of the Egyptians? Had the nature of the country any influence upon it? What is said of their arts? By whom was Egypt overthrown? Has it ever been independent since? What can you say of the ancient Aryans in India? What great religious reformer arose in India, and when? What system in India has been especially baneful? What is the classic language of the Hindus? What is said of the Sanskrit literature? Relate the story of Assyria and Babylon. What is said of the architecture of the Babylonians? —of their literature?—of their art and luxury?—of their religion? What is said of the Phœnicians? How did they become wealthy? In what did they excel? What was their greatest service to the world? What was the greatest of the Phœnician colonies? What is the anachronism of Vergil in respect of Carthage? What were the two chief cities of Phœnicia? What were the Punic wars? What does the word *Punic* mean? What was the end of Carthage?—of Phœnicia? What was the religion of the Phœnicians? Who were the Medes and Persians? What was accomplished by Cyrus the Great?—by Cambyses? What was the failure of Darius—of Xerxes? What was the religion of the Persians? In what did the Persians

excel? In what were they deficient? What is said of the antiquity of the Chinese people? What of the Tsin dynasty?—what of the Han dynasty? What is the nature of Chinese writing? What are the leading characteristics of the Chinese? What is said of their religion?—of Confucius?

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History of the Jews.

I. From Abraham to Moses.

1. Abraham, the founder of the Jewish people, was a native of the country of the Chaldees, or Babylonians. Journeying thence with his family, his retinue, and his flocks, he went to the land of Canaan. To this event no very satisfactory date can now be assigned. Abraham is supposed to have lived about twenty centuries before Christ. Abraham led a peaceful life, changing the place of his tent as the wants of his flocks and herds required; claiming, however, the land of Canaan as an inheritance for his descendants. He had two sons: Ish'mael, from whom are descended the wandering tribes of Arabia; and Isaac, his heir.

2. Jacob, afterwards called Israel, a son of Isaac, had twelve sons, among whom he distinguished with blamable partiality the young and amiable Joseph. The latter was envied and hated by his brothers, and they sold him into slavery in Egypt. There he became prime minister to Pharaoh, the reigning king; and when his father, pressed with famine, sent thither his remaining sons to buy bread, Joseph, after having by seeming severities made them sensible of his power, showed them that he was too generous and noble to harbor revenge. His father, Jacob, removed to Egypt with his whole family. The Egyptians lightly esteemed the pastoral occupation of the newcomers, and Joseph assigned them, for a separate residence, the country of Go'shen.

3. After the death of Joseph the Israelites, or descendants of Jacob, though enslaved and cruelly treated, greatly increased in numbers. A deliverer arose. The command of the king of Egypt had gone forth to slay all the male infants of the Jews. A Jewess, having given birth to a son, made a little ark, or basket, put the child within it, and placed him among the flags on the brink of the River Nile. Miriam, his older sister, watched his fate. The princess of Egypt, Pharaoh's daughter, came with her maidens to bathe in the stream. She looked upon

the weeping child with compassion and tenderness. She rescued him from the water and, at Miriam's suggestion, restored him for a season to the arms of his mother. The princess then adopted him for her son, and caused him to be educated in all the learning of the Egyptians.

4. Moses was early made acquainted with the secret of his birth. Amid the splendors of a court he thought in bitterness upon the wrongs of his kindred. Seeing an Egyptian smite a Hebrew, his indignation broke forth, and he slew him. For this offense he was obliged to flee from the face of Pharaoh; and he went and dwelt in the land of Mid'ian. Later on he returned to Egypt, to become a leader of his people. After the land of Egypt had suffered from a number of plagues, which were attributed to Divine wrath, Pharaoh consented to the departure of the Hebrews. No sooner had they left the country than the monarch pursued them to the borders of the Red Sea. Here the Israelites went forward through the fearful pass of the shallow sea. The Egyptians attempting to follow, the sea closed over them.[1]

B. C. 1300.

5. The passover, a Jewish feast, was instituted in commemoration of the deliverance of the Israelites from the last plague of the Egyptians. This account of Moses is taken from the Bible narrative. It has no other foundation.

QUESTIONS.—Who was the founder of the Jewish Nation? From what stock was he descended? Where did he dwell? To what land did he remove? What sons had Abraham? Relate briefly the history of Joseph. How were the Israelites treated in Egypt after Joseph's death? Relate briefly the early history of Moses. How did the wrongs of his kindred affect him, and what did he do? To what land did he flee? Relate the manner of the exodus, or departure of the Israelites. Give an account of the Passover.

II. The Israelites in Canaan.

1. When the Israelites, under the guidance of Moses, left Egypt they directed their course towards the land of Canaan. Moses formed a civil constitution and enacted laws for the nation. God, under the name Jehovah, was declared their king, and their gov-

[1] Bishop Usslier's chronology assigns to this event, the "exodus" from Egypt, the year 1491 B. C. Later chronologists think that it probably occurred about 1300 B. C.

ernment was a theocracy. Purity of religious worship was the vital principle of their laws. To present an insuperable barrier to polytheism, they were forbidden to intermingle with other nations, which at this time were universally idolaters.

2. After wandering forty years, during which the fathers of the nation had descended to their graves, the Israelites had become fitted by hardships to contend with the powerful tribes that were in possession of their inheritance. After having obtained a victory over the Midianites (one of the tribes that inhabited this land), and when in sight of the promised inheritance, Moses died. He was the greatest of law-givers.

3. Joshua succeeded Moses, and during a seven years' war with the powerful tribes that inhabited Canaan he led the Israelites on to conquest and to the possession of a large portion of the country.

4. The Israelites, or Jews, soon surveyed the land, and divided it among the tribes. On the death of Joshua, no successor being appointed, the government was exercised by chiefs called Judges. The people not unfrequently relapsed into the idolatry of the surrounding nations; and when compelled to contend with the tribes who dwelt within their borders, repeatedly fell into their hands.

5. The reign of the Judges probably continued about two hundred years. The most renowned among them were Deb'orah, Ba'rak, Gid'eon, Jeph'thah, and, lastly, the prophet Samuel. In the days of this prophet the rebellious Israelites demanded a king, and Saul was appointed.[1] He carried on wars with the Am'elekites and with the Philis'tines, to whom the Israelites had previously been for forty years in subjection.

6. On his death David, who had distinguished himself in the Philistine wars, was called to the throne of Judah. This young man united qualities seemingly incompatible. He was beautiful almost to effeminacy, and at the same time terrible in arms. He combined a profound knowledge of war and politics with a skill in music that could calm the madness of Saul, and with a talent for poetry which, in the department of sacred song, has to this day never been equaled.

7. David, becoming sole monarch of all the tribes of Israel, restored the purity of worship, which under Saul had declined.

[1] This was probably about 1090 B. C.

He took Je'bus, a strong fortress, which had remained in possession of the Jeb'usites; and on its site he built the city of Jerusalem, in which he resided. He conquered the Philistines, E'domites, and Mo'abites. He made Syria a Jewish province, and extended his frontiers to the farthest limits of the promised land. He formed an alliance with the Tyr'ians, and from them obtained many valuable articles of merchandise. He made many costly preparations for building a temple for the worship of God, but left the execution of this design to Solomon, his son and successor.

8. The wonderful genius of David extended the Hebrew dominion from the Euphra'tes to the Mediterranean, and from Phœni'cia to the Red Sea. He had also amassed large treasures; so that Solomon, his successor, was the most powerful and wealthy prince of his age. The alliance with Tyre introduced a commerce which enriched the capital and the court; but it brought habits of luxury, and the people were grievously taxed.

9. Solomon early made wisdom his choice, and his nation was elevated to its utmost height of splendor and power. He was surrounded by bold and designing enemies, but he triumphed over them. His foreign treaties secured the peace of his kingdom; and his alliance with Hiram, king of Tyre, furnished many of the splendid decorations of his magnificent temple. In his later years Solomon fell into licentiousness and idolatry, and brought distress upon his country.

B. C. 1015-975.

10 Jerusalem had become enriched by the residence of the court, but the country around was impoverished. At length Solomon had the mortification of losing Syria, which threw off the yoke of Israel and became an independent nation. The peace of his declining days was further disturbed by the insurrection of Jerobo'am and the E'domites. He died after a reign of forty years.

11. Rehobo'am, the son of Solomon, ascended the throne. The people pressed him to redress their grievances. He replied, "My father made your yoke heavy, but I will add to your yoke." Ten tribes revolted; they recalled Jerobo'am, who, after an unsuccessful insurrection in the time of Solomon, had fled into Egypt; and they declared him their king. Thus the Hebrew nation became divided into the two kingdoms of Ju'dah and

Is'rael. Of these two kingdoms, although Israel was the larger and more populous, yet Judah possessed the chief city and was the richer; and the power of the two realms being nearly equal, their contests were obstinate and destructive.

12. Jeroboam, fearing that the national worship at Jerusalem would draw away his subjects, "caused Israel to sin" by establishing in his kingdom a species of idolatry. Judah was invaded by the king of Egypt, who pillaged the temple and the king's house, and carried away the spoils. After a reign of seventeen years Rehoboam was succeeded by his son Abi'jah, who in an attempt to recover Israel obtained a victory over Jeroboam. A'sa, his successor, opposed idolatry and encouraged his subjects to return to their obedience, and to come up to the great national feasts at Jerusalem. During the reign of this prince, Judah was peaceful and prosperous.

13. The Israelites receded farther and farther from the religion of their ancestors. Sama'ria was founded by Om'ri and was made the capital of Israel. Syria had become independent, and Benha'dad, its king, declared war against Israel; but he was repelled by A'hab the son of Omri, a powerful but wicked and idolatrous king. The prophet Elijah fearlessly encountered four hundred priests of Baal, and the Phœnician idol set up for worship by Ahab. Asa, king of Judah, after a long reign, was succeeded by his worthy son Jehosh'aphat, who entered into an alliance with the king of Israel, and whose son Jeho'ram received in marriage Athali'ah, daughter of Ahab.

14. Je'hu, who had succeeded to the throne of Israel, determining to extirpate the family of Ahab, slew among others Ahazi'ah, then king of Judah and son of Athaliah. This cruel woman now caused her son's children to be put to death, in order that she might reign in Jerusalem. One infant was saved from the massacre by the compassionate Jehosh'aba, wife of Jehoi'ada, the high priest. He was concealed for six years, and at the age of seven was proclaimed king in the temple, with the name of Jo'ash. Athaliah heard the shout and rushed into the temple, crying "Treason! Treason!" But she was seized and put to death. Several bloody wars took place between Israel and Syria, during one of which occurred the distressing siege of Samaria. Athaliah and Joash are the subject of the great French tragedy by Racine, entitled "Atalie et Joas."

QUESTIONS.—Whither did the Israelites go? What was the Jewish government? Why? What was its vital principle? Why were the Jews prohibited from intercourse with other nations? What was the length of their sojourn in the wilderness? What is said of Moses? Who was leader of the Israelites after his death? What happened at the death of Joshua? How long did the reign of the Judges continue? Which were the most eminent? Give an account of Saul. Who was David? What did David become? What acts did he perform? Who succeeded him? What account can you give of Solomon during the different periods of his reign? What did Solomon procure of Hiram? Who was Hiram? What happened to Solomon in his later years? How long was his reign? Who extended the Hebrew dominion? How far? How does it appear that David was economical? What effect had the alliance with Tyre upon the Jewish nation? Who succeeded Solomon? What was his character? What petition did he receive? How did he reply to it? Who was Jeroboam? Who made him their king? What two nations now existed in Judea? Of how many and what tribes was each composed? What advantages did each possess? What is further related of Jeroboam? What disastrous invasion of Judah is related? Who was king of Israel next after Rehoboam? Who next, and what was his character? What was the condition of the kingdom of Israel? What became of its capital? By whom was it founded? Who invaded that kingdom? By whom was it defended? What idol was set up? By whom? What prophet opposed this impiety? Who was Jehoshaphat? What alliance was entered into? What was done by Jehu? Relate the history of Joash.

III. Judah and Israel.

1. Tig'lath-Pile'ser, the great king of Assyria, was solicited for aid by Ahaz when Judea was invaded by the kings of Israel and Damascus. He immediately marched an army into Palestine, invaded Syria, possessed himself of Damascus, subdued Hose'a, king of Israel, took possession of all the lands on the farther side of Jordan, and even exacted tribute from Ahaz. Thus the king, in freeing Judah from the Syrians and Israelites, had encountered a more dangerous enemy.

2. The throne of Assyria was next occupied by Shalmane'ser. He besieged Samaria, which, after enduring unexampled horrors from famine, was compelled to surrender, and the ten tribes were carried into captivity. Great numbers of them were transplanted into a mountainous region in the interior of Asia; and from this time history is silent with respect to the fate of these lost tribes.

B. C. 722.

3. Shalmaneser next besieged the wealthy city of Tyre. This siege, in which the Tyrians resisted him with the most invincible courage for five years, came to an end by his death. Sennach'erib, who succeeded him, demanded of Hezeki'ah, the reigning king of Judah, a heavy tribute. After this he marched a powerful army into Egypt, and besieged Pelu'sium. The Egyptians checked his progress by a vigorous resistance. He returned and sent again to Hezekiah, demanding the surrender of Jerusalem. The prophet exhorted the king to trust in the God of Israel, assuring him that the power of the Assyrians should be broken. At midnight, it is related, the Lord sent to the camp the Angel of Death; and in the morning one hundred and eighty-five thousand of the proud Assyrians lay dead on the plain. This mysterious event is the subject of a notable poem by Byron. The humbled Sennacherib hasted to return to his capital, and was soon afterwards assassinated.

B. C. 705-681.

4. Hezekiah was succeeded on the throne of Judah by his son, the imperious and profligate Manas'seh. Esarhad'don, son of Sennacherib and monarch of Assyria, taking advantage of the internal troubles of Babylon, made himself master of that city and reunited it to the Assyrian empire. Syria and Palestine, after the defeat of Sennacherib, had thrown off their allegiance. Esarhaddon recovered them, and then removed from their country the remnant of the Israelites, transplanting at the same time into the cities of Samaria an idolatrous people from the countries beyond the Euphra'tes. He took Jerusalem, and carried away prisoner Manasseh, the king of Judah; but after a few years he released him and restored to him his kingdom.

B. C. 681-669.

5. Josi'ah restored the purity of the national worship, repaired the temple, and extirpated idolatry from the land. In the wars between Ne'cho, king of Egypt, and the Assyrians, Josiah opposed the passage of the Egyptians through Judea. A battle was fought between him and the Egyptian king in the valley of Megid'do. The Jews were overthrown, and Josiah mortally wounded, when Necho marched to Assyria and conquered several cities. Necho then returned to Jerusalem, took the city, dethroned Jeho'ahaz, the youngest son of Josiah, and made Jehoiakim king. The success of Necho in his war against the Babylonians encouraged the Syrians and the Jews to throw off the Assyrian yoke.

6. Nebuchadnez'zar, who was at this period associated with his father Nabopolas'sar in the government of Assyria, took Jerusalem and carried away many captives and much treasure, including the sacred vessels of the temple.

7. Zedeki'ah, the third in succession from Jehoiakim, revolted from the Assyrians. Nebuchadnezzar reappeared before the walls of Jerusalem. The inhabitants, expecting succor from Egypt, maintained an obstinate resistance for nearly a year. The city was at length taken by storm, when the vengeance of the Babylonians was wreaked upon its inhabitants. The children of the Jewish king were murdered in the presence of their father, his eyes were put out, and he was carried captive to Babylon. The inhabitants and the remaining treasures were carried away, and the temple, the dwellings, and the fortifications were leveled to the dust.

B. C. 586.

8. Cyrus, a later king of Persia, permitted the Jews, who were still in captivity in Bab'ylon, to return to Jerusalem, and he not only assisted them in rebuilding their temple, which had been destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, but restored its sacred vessels.

B. C. 538.

9. It was under the guidance of Zorob'abel, sprung from the ancient royal family, and of the high priest Joshua, that a colony of Jews was permitted by Cyrus to return and rebuild the temple; but the wealthier and the more numerous part of the nation remained beyond the Euphrates, where they had settled.

10. Samaria was at this time occupied by a people who were not the descendants of the Israelites, but of the colony sent thither by Esarhaddon, after he had carried away the ten tribes. They were unfriendly to the Jews, and prevailed on Camby'ses, son of Cy'rus, to forbid the latter to proceed with the rebuilding of the temple; and it was not until the death of Dari'us Hystas'pes that the interdict was removed. Then Ezra, and after him Nehemi'ah, brought new colonists, who engaged with ardor in the pious task. During the reign of Xerxes Jerusalem was under the satraps of Syria; but as the Persian empire began to decline, the high priests gradually became the actual chiefs of the nation, though nominally under allegiance to the Persian monarchs.

11. Nehemiah, in his zeal for the violated law, obliged all who had married heathen women either to separate from them or to quit Jerusalem. Manasseh, son of Jehoi'da the high priest, was

one of this number; and, rather than part with his wife, he accompanied her to her father, Sanbal'lat, governor of Samaria. The Samaritans had previously blended the worship of the God of Israel with that of their idols; and Sanballat now obtained of Darius No'thus leave to build, at Mount Gerizim, near Samaria, a temple, of which he made his son-in-law high priest. The Samar'itans asserted the superior sanctity of this temple to that of Jerusalem; and irreconcilable hatred thus arose between them and the Jews.

12. Such was the divided state of Judea when Alexander the Great, having invaded it, sent a mandate to Jerusalem to furnish his army with provisions and troops. Jad'dus, then the high priest, returned for answer that he had sworn allegiance to the king of Persia, and could not desert his cause while he lived. Alexander, as soon as the siege of Tyre was completed, marched to Jerusalem. The high priest showed him the prophecy of Daniel, and interpreted it to mean that the Persian power should be overthrown by him. The monarch encouraged the Jews to make requests of him, which he granted; and during his life he continued to show them favor.

QUESTIONS.—Give some account of Tiglath-Pileser in connection with Jewish history. Who succeeded him on the throne of Assyria? For what events of Jewish history is his reign remarkable? Is anything now known of the ten tribes? Give an account of the siege of Tyre. What account can you give of Sennacherib? What was the character of Manasseh? Whom did he succeed? What was done in reference to the Jews in his reign, by the Assyrians? What king of Judah restored the national worship? In what battle was he mortally wounded? Give some account of Necho. Who were the kings of Assyria? What account can you give of Nebuchadnezzar's acts in reference to the Jews? Who permitted a colony of Jews to return after their captivity? Under whose guidance did they return? Where were the wealthier portion of the nation? By whom was Samaria occupied? How were the Samaritans affected toward the Jews? Give the time and some of the circumstances of the building of the second temple. Under what government was Jerusalem? What law did Nehemiah make? What message was sent by Alexander the Great, and what answer returned? What retaliation was threatened? How did the high priest win the favor of Alexander?

IV. The Later Jewish Monarchy.

1. After the death of Alexander the Great, Judea was added to Syria; and during the wars of his successors it fell under the

dominion of the Ptol'emies of Egypt. When Anti'ochus the Great was on the throne of Syria the Jews voluntarily submitted to him, and assisted him in driving away the Egyptian troops. Grateful for this service, Antiochus confirmed them in all the privileges of their peculiar religion. The Jewish priesthood had continued in unbroken succession; and in 198 B. C. mention is made in history of an ecclesiastical senate, or San'hedrim.

2. Judea flourished, and was scarcely more than nominally subject to the king of Syria. Wealth had accumulated, particularly the treasures of the temple. Antiochus Epiph'anes managed to get into the priesthood creatures of his own, who dispensed this to him in presents. The Jews revolted. Antiochus took Jerusalem and began a horrid extermination of the worshipers of Jehovah. Headed by the illustrious family of the Mac'cabees, the people made successful head against their oppressors. The first of the Maccabees was the father, Mattathi'as; the second was his valiant son, Judas Maccabæ'us. He defeated the generals of Antiochus in several battles and secured the friendship of the Romans.

3. The third of the illustrious Maccabees was Jonathan Maccabæus, who, attaining to the dignity of high-priest, was acknowledged as the head of the nation, even by Deme'trius II, now king of Syria. The fourth of the Maccabees was Si'mon, who succeeded his brother in the high-priesthood, and in consequence of military services to the king of Syria was freed from tribute and received the title of prince. His son, John Hyrca'nus, succeeded to his dignities, and not only maintained his independence, but renewed the connection with Rome. He took advantage of the decline of the Syrian power and conquered Samaria and Idume'a. With his death the heroes of this family have an end, and many troubles begin.

4. The Phar'isees were a sect who, from their sanctimonious observances, gained much authority with the people. Za'dok, a Jewish philosopher, disgusted with their pretensions, founded a sect called the Sad'ducees, which went to the opposite extreme in matters of religion, denying the immortality of the soul and the agency of spirits in human affairs. These two sects, formerly at variance only in matters of religion, now became violent political parties. Two sons of Hyrcanus, in deadly hostility to each other, successively occupied his place; but the race had become degen-

erate, stained with cruelty, disunion, and bloodshed. The Romans came in as arbitrators; and that, with them, was to rule as masters. They imposed a tribute on the Jews; sent Aristobu'lus, a grandson of Hyrcanus, with his family, prisoners to Rome, and appointed one of his opponents, Antipa'ter, procurator, or Roman governor, of Judea. He adhered to Rome; and when his patron, Julius Cæsar, was assassinated, his second son, Herod, gained the friendship of Mark Antony. He was afterwards, by the Triumvirate, made king; and, although a suspicious and cruel man, he obtained the name of "Herod the Great." By the generosity of the Roman sovereign his kingdom gradually extended till it embraced all Palestine, with Idumea; and from these countries he was allowed to collect revenue without tribute. It was in the last year but one of his reign that Jesus Christ was born.

QUESTIONS.—Under what masters did Judea at this time fall? At what time do we hear of an ecclesiastical court? Who was the first of the Maccabees?—the second?—the third? What account can you give of Judea in his time? What history can you give of the Pharisees and the Sadducees?—of Antipater?—of the conduct of the Romans toward the Jews?

V. The Destruction of the Jewish Nation.

1. King Herod was the son of Antipa'ter, an Idumean. Julius Cæsar made him Procurator of Judea; and with him the sceptre departed, as foretold, from Judah to foreign princes. Herod, perceiving the greatness of the Roman power, paid his court to Mark Antony, and was raised by him to power. The Jews rebelled against him. He fled, and took refuge with the Triumviri of Rome. They received him graciously, and by the favor of Augustus he was appointed king. He returned and took possession of Jerusalem and Judea. He built several cities, rebuilt the temple, and was called "the Great"; but he was a wretch in cruelty. To cut off the remaining blood of the Maccabees, he murdered his beautiful wife Mariam'ne, two sons of his own and hers, and her mother, brother, and grandfather.

2. On the death of Herod his three sons, Archela'us, Philip, and Herod An'tipas, were appointed over different points of his kingdom. Herod Antipas beheaded John the Baptist, after that prophet had fulfilled his mission by proclaiming that a new and heavenly kingdom was to be ushered in, and by identifying Jesus

of Nazareth, by whom it was to come. After various changes Judea and Samaria were annexed to Syria under Procurators subordinate to the Syrian governors, of which Pon'tius Pi'late, by whom Christ was given up to be crucified, was the fifth. He is represented by historians as a cruel man and an unjust judge, considering more what he himself should gain or lose in money or in popularity than the right of the case to be decided. He permitted many cruelties against the innocent, which at length so disturbed the peace of Judea that complaint was made to the Romans. He was deposed by Vitel'lius, and sent to Rome for trial. Calig'ula banished him to Gaul, where in want and misery he committed suicide.

3. Although the Jews were in temporal affairs under the Romans, yet in regard to religion they sternly maintained their independence. Their "chief priests and elders" formed an ecclesiastical council, with the high priest at its head. This tribunal it was that first accused Jesus, to Pilate, of a state offense—that of seeking to make himself king in the place of Cæsar; and then they put Jesus to death on the cross for alleged blasphemy.

4. The Jews began to treat the servants of Jesus as they had treated their master. Stephen was stoned. A young man named Saul stood by, consenting to his death. He was of a resolute, determined mind; and, thinking to do God service, he persecuted the church even in strange cities. Then, as the result of a vision, he himself became a Christian; and henceforth we find him more abundant in the labors of the gospel than all the other apostles.

5. For a time the word was preached only to the Jewish nation, all others being called Gentiles and counted as unworthy to hold any intercourse with God's chosen people. This dispensation was changed. A devout Roman centurion learned from an angel that his prayers and alms had ascended, and that he must send for a teacher divinely commissioned. When he appeared, Cornelius would have worshiped, but Peter said, "Stand up; I also am a man." Cornelius believed and was baptized; and thus the wall of partition between Jew and Gentile was broken down.

6. After this Saul, thence called Paul, carried Christianity into Asia Minor, Greece and Italy. With the other apostles, he relinquished all that makes men love this life; went forth suffering stripes, fastings, and imprisonments; everywhere gentle, nowhere resisting with violence, not even when death and torture

were before them; exhorting alike the rich and the poor to flee from the wrath to come and to lay hold on eternal life. Thus was Christianity established by men who exulted in the flames of martyrdom, there finishing their earthly course with joy.

7. Herod Agrippa, the grandson of Herod the Great, received from the Roman Emperor Caligula the title of king, and from Claudius the dominions of his grandfather. The Jews, but partially subjugated, proved troublesome to the Romans. An outbreak occurred on the occasion of an attempt by Caligula to desecrate the temple by placing in it his own statue; but an open revolt was caused by the rapacity of Ges'sius Glor'us, who was placed over the Jews by Nero. The Emperor Vespa'sian commanded the Syr'ian legions, and obtained repeated victories, at length making himself master of all their strongholds and fortresses except Jerusalem. Recalled to Rome to accept the imperial purple, he left his son Titus to conduct the war in Judea.

8. Titus began the siege at the Passover, when the Jews from every nation were gathered within the city. They were divided into three factions, each with the most rancorous hatred of the others. With the Roman army at their gates, they still continued the fury of their contentions, their outrages and murders. Every part of the city was filled with pollution and massacre. The religious ceremonies indeed were not suspended, but even in the temple the blood of the citizens mingled with that of the sacrifice. Thus "the abomination of desolation" stood in the holy place. War without and deadly feud and starving famine within caused a scene of "tribulation such as was not since the beginning of the world; no, nor ever shall be."

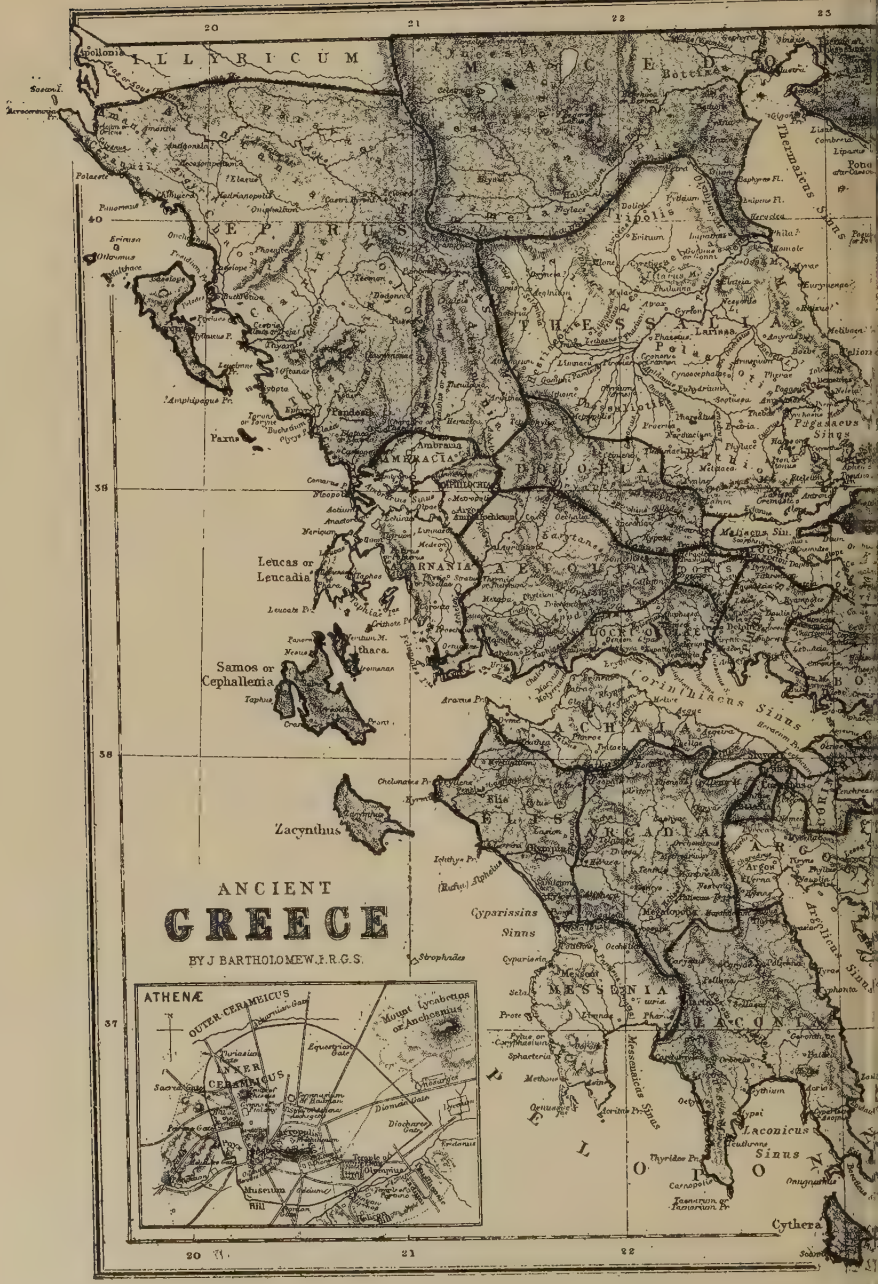
9. Titus made the Jews repeated offers of pardon and protection on condition of surrender, but they resisted with inflexible obstinacy. Tac'itus, the great Roman historian, remarks that "they were misled by an ancient prophecy, which foretold that in this very juncture the power of the East would prevail over the nations, and a race of men would go forth from Judea to extend their dominion over the rest of the world." The Christians, when they saw "Jerusalem encompassed with armies, and a trench cast round about her," fled to the mountains.

10. The Romans stormed the city. The Jews fought with the most determined bravery. The Roman arms obtained no advantage in the first assault. In the second, which continued three

days without intermission, a part of the walls was leveled and a portion of the city taken. The Jews, driven from one part, retreated to another, and still maintained the other. At length the temple alone remained. This Titus resolved to save, but the Jews crowded into it, and thither the Romans pursued them. In the dreadful uproar a soldier threw a lighted torch, which caught upon the woodwork. Fire was communicated and soon enveloped the whole of that beautiful and venerable fabric; and so complete was its final destruction that "not one stone was left upon another."

11. Jose'phus, the Jewish historian, estimates the number who perished during the siege at eleven hundred thousand. The Jews no longer held the rank of a nation, and Judea was entirely subjected to the Roman power. Its inhabitants for more than seventeen hundred years have been scattered over the face of the earth, without ever amalgamating with the various nations with whom they have made their residence.

QUESTIONS.—Give an account of the parentage of Herod. What were the steps by which he rose to power? What his acts and character? What occurred after the death of Herod? What mission did John the Baptist fulfill? Give an account of Pontius Pilate. What was the situation of the Jews in regard to ecclesiastical affairs? What double dealing course did the Sanhedrim pursue in regard to their accusation of Jesus? What course did the Disciples pursue? Relate the earliest steps in the spread of Christianity. What did the Jews universally believe respecting other nations? How did Christ's followers learn that his religion was not for the Jews alone? Into what countries was Christianity introduced and in what manner? Mention some particulars concerning "King Agrippa." What was the temper of the Jews towards the Romans? What Roman general began the war? Give an account of the measures of his successor. What was the condition of the Jews in Jerusalem? What offer did Titus make? Why, according to Tacitus, did they accept? What did the Christians remember and do? Give an account of the final destruction of the city. What was the number killed? What now is the condition of the Jews?


ILLYRICUM
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PHOCIS
LOCRIS
ACARNANIA
AETOLIA
AMPHILOCHIA
AMBRACIA
PAEONIA
Leucas or Leucadia
Samos or Cephallenia
Ithaca
Zacynthus
Paxos
Cythera
Laconicus Sinus
Messeniacus Sinus
Corinthiacus Sinus
Argolicus Sinus
Pegasaeus Sinus
Thermaicus Sinus
Cyparissius Sinus
Strophades
ANCIENT
GREECE
BY J BARTHOLOMEW, F.R.G.S.
ATHENÆ
OUTER CERAMEICUS
INNER CERAMEICUS
Mount Lycabettus or Anchesmus
Museum Hill
Areopagus
Pnyx
Theseum
Temple of Olympian Jupiter
Ilissus R.
Eridanus R.
Dipylum Gate
Acharnian Gate
Diochares Gate
Itonian Gate
Peiraic Gate
Melitensis
Acropolis
Agora
Ceramicus
Dionysiac Theatre
Odeum
Stadium
Gymnasium
Lyceum
Academia
Colonus
Hippius
Cephisia
Phalerum
Piræus
Munychia
Long Walls
Phaleric Wall
Middle Wall
Northern Wall
Southern Wall
Temple of Theseus
Temple of Jupiter Olympius
Temple of Minerva Polias
Temple of Victory
Temple of Erechtheus
Temple of Pandrosus
Temple of Jupiter Olympius
Temple of Bacchus
Temple of Venus
Temple of Minerva
Temple of Vulcan
Temple of Neptune
Temple of Ceres
Temple of Apollo
Temple of Diana
Temple of Hercules
Temple of Mercury
Temple of Minerva
Temple of Jupiter

24
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26
27
Thasos
Samothrace
Mare
Thracium
Melas Sinus
Propontis
Sinus Saronicus
Sinus Singiticus
Lemnos
Tenedos
MYSIA
Adramyttenus Sinus
Mytilene
Scyros
Skyros
Peparethos
Sporades
Icos
Scopelos
Peloponnesus
Euboea
Payna
Chios
Andros
Tenos
Coos
Cythnos
Syros
Myconos
Seriphos
Paros
Oliaros
Siphnos
Cimolos
Melos
Icaria
Patmos
Leros
Calymna
Cos
Astypalea
Ios
Anaphe
There
Thera or Ca.
Pholegandros
Sicinos
Polyegos
Antiparos
Delos
Rhenea
Lebinthos
Lepsia
Rhytasso
Miletus
Latmus
Ephesus
Samos
Lesbos
Hellespont
Adramyttium
Cyme
Phocaea
Smyrna
Erythrae
Clazomenae
Teos
Lebedus
Colophon
Ephesus
Priene
Myus
Miletus
Halicarnassus
Cnidus
Cos
Rhodes
Lycia
Pamphylia
Cilicia
Cyprus
Crete
Aegina
Attica
Boeotia
Euboea
Peloponnesus
Argolis
Laconia
Messenia
Elis
Achaia
Arcadia
English Miles
Greek Stadia
Roman Miles
Longitude East 25 from Greenwich

History of Greece.

I. The Pelasgi and the Hellenes.

1. Greece was originally inhabited by various tribes, of whom the Pelas'gi and the Helle'nes were the most powerful. The Pelasgi, a savage people, inhabited the Peloponne'sus, and under In'achus are said to have founded Argos and Sic'yon. The more humane Hellenes, of whom Deuca'lion was leader, were originally a small tribe residing in the north of Thes'saly; but, becoming powerful, they spread themselves over Greece. The Pelasgi, driven from all their possessions except Arca'dia and the region of Dodo'na, are said to have migrated in various directions—to Italy and to Crete and the other islands of the Mediterranean. Probably some of them resided in Thessaly, as a district of that country has always borne their name. The Hellenes were divided into four tribes, distinguished from each other by many peculiarities of language and customs. These were the Io'nians (of whom the principal were the Athenians), the Do'rians (of whom the principal were the Spartans), the Æo'lians, and the Achai'ans. The traditionary accounts of these early ages represent them as in a savage state, wholly ignorant of husbandry.

2. It is related that Ce'crops, bringing a colony from Egypt, prevailed upon the inhabitants of At'tica to submit to him as their king. He divided the country into twelve districts, founded the city of Ath'ens, and established the Areop'agus, a council of citizens chosen for their wisdom and wealth, to whom was intrusted the power of punishing capital offenses.

3. Phœni'cian colonies settled in Crete, in Rhodes, and in several parts of Greece. It is said by some that they brought with them letters and music, and a more accurate method of computing time than had hitherto been adopted. Most writers, however, are of the opinion that letters were brought into Greece by a Phœnician colony under Cad'mus, who settled in Bœo'tia, and founded

the city of Thebes. No considerable use of letters is known to have been made in Greece before the year 776 B. C.

QUESTIONS.—Give an account of the Pelasgi. Find, on the map of Greece, Argos and the several other places mentioned. Give an account of the Hellenes. Into what races were they divided? Give an account of the founding of Athens. What was the Areopagus? Give an account of the founding of Thebes. When and by whom were letters brought into Greece? Who was Inachus?—Deucalion?—Cecrops?—Cadmus?

II. Greek Institutions.

1. Public games formed a part of the religious ceremonies of the ancient Greeks. The four principal ones of these were the Olym'pic, the Pyth'ian, the Neme'an, and the Isth'mian. The Olympic games were celebrated at Olympia once in four years, in honor of Jupiter Olym'pus. The Olympic games were instituted in remote antiquity, by whom it is uncertain, but it was not until 776 B. C. that the Greeks began to reckon time by Olympiads, one Olympiad being four years. The Pythian games were in honor of Apollo Pyth'ius; the Nemean were celebrated once in two years, and the Isthmian, on the isthmus of Corinth, in honor of Neptune, once in four years. The exercises consisted in racing, wrestling, boxing, etc., and success in them was an object of the highest ambition. The prize awarded the victor was a simple wreath. In the Olympic games it was others, of parsley.

B. C. 776.

2. Another institution which was of great importance as a bond of union among the Greek states was the Amphictyon'ic Council. This was a confederacy of twelve cities, whose petty princes met at Delphi twice a year to concert measures for their common safety, and to settle disputes arising between members of the union. They adopted at this early period the rule that none of the states belonging to the confederacy should be destroyed by the others. Thus in remote antiquity do we find the germ of the only legitimate principle of government among men, union for the purposes of peace and mutual protection.

3. Of the ancient city of Troy nothing is known except through the uncertain media of poetry and tradition and the archeological study of its ruins. The siege of Troy[1] by the con-

[1] No date can be assigned to this with any confidence, though the conflict is supposed to have occurred nearly twelve centuries B. C.

federated princes of Greece is related by the poet Homer. Greece, according to his account, was divided into many small states, of which Myce'næ and Ar'gos were the principal. These with Acha'ia and Cor'inth were under the dominion of Agamem'non, whose brother Menela'us was king of Sparta and the adjacent country (Lacedæ'mon). After a siege of ten years the Greeks took and burned Troy. On their return they found their country in a distracted and suffering condition. During the absence of their kings, others had assumed their rights and authority, and for a series of years nothing is heard of in Greece but a continual succession of wars and disorders.

4. The "War of the Heracli'dæ" occurred afterwards, between the families of Per'seus and Pe'lops, who had anciently contended for the sovereignty of the Peloponne'sus. Hercules was the great-grandson of Perseus, it is said, and from him the Per'seid family were called the Heraclidæ. They had been expelled from the Peloponnesus by the Pelop'idæ (or the race of Pelops), and were now princes of Do'ris, a small, rugged tract of country among the mountains of Œta and Parnas'sus. They at length conquered the Pelopidæ and made themselves masters of the Peloponnesus. The principal chiefs divided the cities by lots. Sparta fell to Aristode'mus, who dying, Eurys'thenes and Pro'cles, his infant twins, were proclaimed joint kings of Lacedæmon, and each became the founder of a royal race. From this time the Dorians had a preponderance in the Peloponnesus; and Lacedæmon, or Sparta, acquired the supremacy.

5. Of the old inhabitants, who were of Ionian descent, some sought refuge among their brethren at Athens. Great numbers emigrated; and of these the Æo'lians went to the northwestern part of Asia Minor, where they built twelve cities, of which Smyr'na was the principal. On the island of Les'bos they built five, of which the largest was Mityle'ne. Those of the conquered who remained in the Peloponnesus were made slaves.

6. Legend tells us that the Spartans were indignant at the Athenians for having given refuge to the inhabitants that fled from the Peloponnesus, and that they invaded At'tica. The oracle of Apollo at Delphi had promised success to their arms on condition that they should not kill Co'drus, the Athenian king. Codrus, on learning this, disguised himself as a peasant, entered the Dorian camp, provoked a quarrel, and was killed. On the news of his

death the superstitious army of the invaders immediately retreated. A dispute arising between the sons of Codrus respecting the succession, it was decided that no person was worthy to succeed that magnanimous sovereign. The office of king was therefore abolished, and that of Ar'chon substituted in its stead. To this office Me'don, the eldest son of Codrus, was first elected. The office was to be held during life, and to be hereditary; but the Archon was made accountable to the assembly of the people.

7. The Ionians founded colonies in Asia Minor, south of the Æolian colonies. They took possession of the islands of Sa'mos and Chi'os, and of a part of Lyd'ia and Ca'ria, which from them received the name of Io'nia. They built many cities, of which Eph'esus was the principal, and established in each an independent government.

QUESTIONS.—What were the public games? Give an account of the Olympic—of the three others. In what exercises did the combatants contend at the games? What was the prize of victory? Who was the famous legendary king of Crete? What was the reputation of his laws? What account can you give of Attica at this time? What council was established? By whom? Where did it meet? How often? For what purpose? What principle did it adopt? From what do we derive our accounts of ancient Troy? What does Homer relate of the situation of Greece? Who were the chiefs of the Greeks? Who was the hero of Troy? What was the condition of Greece afterwards? Between what families was the war of the Heraclidae? From whom were they named? By whom had they been expelled? What was the result of the war? What became of the old inhabitants of the Peloponnesus? Give an account of the invasion of Attica. Who was the last king of Athens? How did he sacrifice himself for his country? Who was the first Archon? What can you say of the office of Archon? Give an account of the Ionian colonies of Asia Minor. In what direction were they from the Æolian?

III. The Spartan Kingdom.

1. Lycur'gus, who is supposed to have lived eight centuries before Christ, was of the family of the Heraclidæ, and was commonly reckoned the tenth in descent from Hercules. By his magnanimity in preserving the crown of Sparta for the infant son of a deceased brother when it was offered to him, he obtained among the people great and deserved popularity; and during the minority of his nephew the government was placed in his hands. He gave to Sparta a new and singular constitution, the chief

aim of which was to banish luxury, to instill public spirit in the place of private interest, and to increase the power of the state by making a nation of soldiers.

2. Lycurgus procured a new and equal distribution of land. He compelled every citizen to eat at a public table, where the food was of the simplest kind, and the conversation was grave and instructive. He banished commerce and all superfluous arts from Sparta, and forbade the use of any other money than iron coin. He established a senate of twenty-eight members, to be elected by the people, over whom the two kings of Sparta were to preside; also an assembly of the people, which had the power of repealing or sanctioning the decrees of the Senate. The children of the Spartans were taken from their parents as the property of the state. The males were trained to arms and the females were rendered hardy and vigorous by exercise and temperance. Mothers were taught to rejoice when their sons fell in defense of their country, and courage was placed first among good qualities. The Spartans were allowed neither fleets nor walls.

3. The institutions of Lycurgus were far from promoting the social affections and domestic virtues so essential to individual happiness. The youth were directed to steal messes, herbs, etc., from the public halls and gardens; but if detected they were severely punished. The design was, by teaching them to become dexterous and cunning, to render them more fit for the stratagems of war. A boy who had stolen a young fox and hid it in his bosom suffered it to tear out his vitals rather than that he should bear the detection of his theft. The Lacedæmo'nians, or Spartans, were forbidden to follow agriculture or to cultivate mechanic arts. All servile offices were assigned to the He'lots, or slaves, who were treated with great severity. Having bound his countrymen by an oath to observe his laws until he should return, Lycurgus left Sparta and returned no more, thus seeking to insure the permanency of his institutions by a voluntary banishment. During the five hundred years in which the Lacedæmonians adhered to these laws they were a powerful people.

4. Lycurgus, having labored for the good of his own state, traveled over the other portions of Greece. Journeying to Asia, he beheld with delight the prosperous condition of the Asiatic colonies. There he discovered the poems of Homer, which he made known to the Dorian conquerors of the Peloponnesus. These

poems constitute one of the greatest wonders of mankind. In them we see poetry, the chief of human arts, brought forth at once in its full perfection by a poet whose birth-place is unknown, and who was probably poor and obscure—yet to whom the geography of Greece and of Asia Minor was certainly known, and probably its early history also.

5. According to Plu'tarch, Lycurgus committed suicide, putting an end to his life by severe abstinence; but Lu'cian says that he died a natural death at the age of eighty-five.

6. Under the laws of Lycurgus the Spartans increased in power and became the terror of the surrounding states. The Ar'gives (people of Ar'gos), the Arca'dians, and especially the Messe'nians, suffered from their ambition. The first war with Messenia continued twenty years, during which the Spartans entirely subdued that people. For forty years they held them in bondage. At length Aristome'nes arose and attempted the rescue of his country. After having fought three years with great bravery and defeated the Spartans in several engagements, Aristomenes was forced to throw himself into Ei'ra, a strong fortress near the sea. Here he maintained himself during a siege of eleven years; then his enemies saw that he was rendered desperate and they suffered him to retreat to Arcadia. A part of the Messenians were made Helots, or slaves; a part received the protection of their allies, the Arcadians; and many migrated to Italy and Sicily, and there founded Rhe'gium and Messi'na. Sparta was now the chief state of Greece.

QUESTIONS.—Who was Lycurgus? How did he become popular in Sparta? What did he give to Sparta? What were the principles of his institutions? What was the character of these institutions in regard to patriotism and love of country? What in regard to individual happiness and virtue? What was forbidden to the Spartans? By whom were servile offices to be performed? What method did Lycurgus take to ensure permanency of his laws? What did he observe in Asia Minor? What did Lycurgus discover? What do these poems constitute? What accounts are given of the death of Lycurgus?

IV. The Athenian Republic.

1. Athens was gradually assuming a republican form of government. After a succession of twelve hereditary Archons, the

term of office was limited to ten years. The Archons were still to be chosen from the family of Codrus, the last of the legendary kings. Nine Archons were subsequently chosen in place of one, and the term of office was limited to one year. These nine were at first elected by the voluntary suffrages of the people, afterwards by lots from among the nobles. Faction and discord prevailing,

B. C. 621. a reform was needed; and a code of laws, termed the bloody code, was made by Dra'co. By this code the smallest offense and the most heinous crime were alike punished with death or banishment.

2. A generation after Draco, when by the rigor of his laws the Athenians were plunged into confusion and misery, the wise

B. C. 594. So'lon was appointed Archon, with the power of reforming the state. His first attempt was to settle the quarrels between the rich and the poor. In order to remove the evils which arose from the debts of the poor and the power of their creditors, he lowered the interest of money, raised its nominal value, and deprived creditors of power over the persons of debtors or of their families. He extended the right of property beyond the death of the owners, allowing them to dispose of their estates by will. He divided the people into four classes, according to their wealth. Only the first three classes, composed of the rich, could hold public offices; but the fourth had an equal vote in the assembly of the people. The nine Archons were continued as chief magistrates, but there was associated with them a Council, or Senate; and nothing could be brought before the people which had not been first discussed in this body. The members of the Senate were chosen annually by lot from the first three classes of citizens, and consisted of four hundred persons. The assembly of the people comprised the four classes of citizens, and possessed the power of deciding upon war and peace, of choosing the magistrates, and of deliberating upon the subjects proposed by the Senate. Solon restored and augmented the power of Areop'agus, making it the supreme court of judicature. It was composed of those who had held the office of Archon with honor and dignity, and its members retained their place for life. The reputation of this court for justice and integrity was so great that it is said that even the Romans, who were now rising to power, referred causes to its decision.

3. But these wise regulations did not long restrain the restless spirit of the Athenians. Pisis'tratus, a descendant of the ancient kings, and a relation of Solon, by his insinuating manners and pretense to zeal for the people made himself the most popular man in Athens. Appearing one day in the market-place bloody and covered with wounds, he declared that he had received them from his enemies, by whom he had been waylaid. The people believed that his life had been thus exposed for the public good, and a guard of fifty soldiers was granted him. Soon after this he augmented the number, seized the Acrop'olis, and exiled all who would not submit to him. Thus he made himself tyrant of Athens. He was twice expelled; but, finding means to reinstate himself, he reigned seventeen years in peace. He governed in a mild and equitable manner, not attempting any further alterations in the constitution of Solon. He established a public library, and made the Athenians acquainted with the poems of Homer, which he collected and ordered to be read at the public feasts.

B. C. 560.

4. Pisistratus was succeeded by his sons Hip'pias and Hippar'chus. Their united reign, at first popular, was, after a few years, terminated by the assassination of Hipparchus at a religious festival. From this time the government of Hippias exhibited a jealous and cruel policy. The Alcmæon'idæ, a powerful family who had been banished from Athens, united with Cleom'enes, the reigning king of Sparta. They advanced with a large army, and, being joined by other exiles who had suffered from the cruelty of Hippias, laid siege to Athens. Hippias and his family fled from Attica and went to Sardis, then under the government of Darius, king of Persia, who espoused his cause.

B. C. 521.

5. Clis'thenes, one of the Alcmæonidæ, succeeded to power. He undermined the constitution of Solon by introducing certain alterations pleasing to the populace. He increased the number of the tribes from four to ten, and enacted that fifty should be chosen from each tribe to constitute the Senate, from this time called the Council of the Five Hundred.

B. C. 510.

QUESTIONS—What was the condition and conduct of the Spartans? How long was their first war with Messenia? How did it terminate? Give an account of the second Messenian war. What changes occurred in the government of Athens? What were the laws of Draco called? Why?

What was the effect of "the bloody code"? Give an account of Solon—of his edict to help the poor—of his edict in reference to wills—of his edict respecting the divisions of the people. What did Solon direct in regard to the Archons?—what with respect to the Senate?—what respecting an assembly of the people? Give an account of his successors. Who next rose to power, and how did he alter the laws of Solon?

V. The Persian Invasions of Greece.

1. Greece was composed of a number of small and independent States, connected with each other by no bond of interest or obligation, but often engaged in feuds and hostilities. Sparta and Athens, having attained a preëminence over the other States, were jealous of each other. Persian invasions for once united them; a national spirit awoke, and laid the foundation of future greatness.

The first invasion was led by Mardo'nius, a Persian general, in revenge for aid lent by Athens to Greek cities on the coast of Asia Minor, which were in revolt against their Persian conquerors. This expedition was a failure. The Persian fleet was wrecked at Mt. A'thos, and the land forces were successfully resisted by the barbarous Macedonians.

The year following the invasion by Mardonius, Dari'us sent heralds into Greece, demanding of all the cities earth and water, the usual form in which the Persians exacted submission. Thebes, Ægina, and many of the cities and islands submitted, but Athens and Sparta resented the demand. In the one place the heralds were thrown into a cave, and in the other they were hurled into a well and bidden to procure there the "earth and water" which they wanted.

B. C. 492.

2. Darius, in the meantime, had made vigorous preparations for the war. Da'tis, with Artapher'nes, a son of the former Governor of Lyd'ia, was appointed to succeed Mardonius. They departed from Asia Minor with a fleet of five hundred ships and an army of one hundred thousand men. Having taken the islands of the Æge'an Sea, they advanced towards Attica and landed on the narrow plain of Mar'athon.

3. The Spartans, from some superstitious fears, were unwilling to join the little band of Athenians till after the full moon. In Milti'ades the Athenians possessed a commander capable of directing the energies of the republic, and of infusing into the breasts of the people the ardor of his own self-devoting spirit.

He had formerly been "tyrant" (king) of the Chersone'sus; and having accompanied Darius in his Scyth'ian expedition, was acquainted with the Persian mode of warfare. This intrepid man did not even await the approach of the Persians, but marched onward to Marathon with only his little army of ten thousand heroes, and prepared with alacrity for the encounter of the Persian host which was ten times his number. The strength of the Persian army consisted in its cavalry; and the prudent Miltiades had drawn up his forces on a narrow plain, where cavalry had no opportunity for action. On the signal of battle the Athenians advanced running and at once engaged the enemy in close fight. The whole Persian army retreated in disorder to their ships. The Athenians pursued, slaughtering twelve thousand, set many ships on fire and took seven.

B. C. 490.

Miltiades now obtained of the Athenians a fleet of seventy ships, with the design of punishing those islands which had favored the Persians. He laid siege to Pa'ros; but having received a dangerous wound in attempting to enter the town, he raised the siege and returned to Athens.

B. C. 488.

4. Darius, the Persian king, was occupied for three years in preparing a more powerful armament, intending to lead the expedition in person. He dying, Xerxes, his eldest son, succeeded him. Xerxes subdued the Egyptians, who had revolted, and then continued the vast preparations made for the invasion of Greece. After four years, in which he had gathered an army from every part of his extensive empire, he commenced his march towards the Hel'lespont.

B. C. 481.

He passed the winter at Sar'dis, whence he sent heralds to all the Grecian states except Athens and Lacedæmon, demanding earth and water. The Thessa'lians and some others submitted. In the spring Xerxes, at the head of an army said to have been *greater than was ever collected either before or since his time*, advanced towards Greece. A bridge of boats had been made at a monstrous expense, for the passage of the host across the Hellespont (now called the Dardanelles). The width of the strait and the rapidity of the current were not sufficiently considered, and the undertaking proved as useless as it was difficult and dangerous. The bridge was destroyed by a violent storm; and Xerxes, in a fit of passion, ordered the workmen to

B. C. 480.

be put to death and the rebellious sea to be scourged with three hundred lashes, and chains to be thrown into it.

A second attempt succeeded. A bridge was completed and the army occupied seven days and seven nights in the passage. Having crossed the Thracian Chersone'sus, Xerxes reviewed his army. His infantry is said to have amounted to 1,700,000 and his cavalry to 80,000. It is stated that his fleet, when he left Asia, consisted of 1,207 vessels of three banks of oars, each carrying 300 fighting men; and that the European nations had added to his fleet twenty vessels, each carrying 200 men; besides which there were small galleys, transport ships and vessels carrying provisions, amounting in all to 3,000. These statements of the size of the Persian forces are believed by modern critics to be exaggerated.

B. C. 480.

5. Great was the terror of the Greeks. Athens and Lacedæmon sent ambassadors to Ge'lon, the principal tyrant of Syracuse; to Argos, and to the isles of Corcyra and Crete. From each an unfavorable answer was returned. The Athenians next consulted the oracle of Delphi. The answer was that when all else was destroyed, their wooden walls might preserve them. This Themis'tocles, who now took the lead in Athens, interpreted to signify their ships. After the battle of Marathon, that profound politician, foreseeing the probable re-invasion of his country, had sought to increase the maritime power of Athens. At his suggestion the revenues of some silver mines, which had usually been distributed among the people, were applied to the building of a hundred galleys. On the first alarm they had doubled their number of ships, and they now appointed Themistocles to the command. Eurybi'ades, a Spartan, was commander-in-chief of the whole naval force of the allies.

6. In the present danger Athens and Ægina had become reconciled, and all internal divisions were healed. Themistocles joined in soliciting the return of Aristides, whose banishment he had been active in securing. Aristides had, in the war with Darius, been of great service to the state; and by the spotless integrity of his character he had acquired the surname of "The Just." While the question of his banishment was pending, he heard a citizen who did not know him speak of voting against him. "Why?" said the good man, "what

B. C. 484.

evil has Aristides done to you?" "I am tired," said the citizen, "of hearing him called 'The Just.'" Aristides then went into voluntary banishment, but returned at the invitation of his country.

7. The Persian king marched at his ease through Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly. The cities through which he passed prepared for him splendid entertainments; and Xerxes believed that he had but to march over the necks of a prostrate people. Leon'idas, the king of Sparta, met him at the pass of Thermop'ylæ, with only three hundred regular troops. Xerxes, hearing that the Spartans had taken possession of this narrow pass, sent word to them that it was the Athenians only with whom he was at war, and he desired that they should lay down their arms. "Tell him to come and take them," said Leonidas. The Persians attacked, but were repulsed with great slaughter by the Grecian phalanx. During three days the Persians made repeated attempts, but the Spartans kept the pass. At length a treacherous Greek showed them a secret path which led to the top of a mountain overlooking and commanding the Spartan position. Leonidas now determined to sacrifice himself and his Spartans, believing that their devotion would show the Persians with whom they had to contend, and his example enkindle the enthusiasm of his countrymen. Leonidas was one of the first who fell. His soldiers, roused to fury, rallied around his body and fought till twenty thousand Persians were slain. Only one of the three hundred remained to carry the news. Sparta despised him, while she rejoiced over her patriot sons who so nobly died for her defense. Such is the story of that famous pass of Thermopylæ.

B. C. 480.

8. The fleet of Xerxes had encountered a terrible storm, which destroyed hundreds of his vessels. It had followed the movements of the land forces, and lay near them, off the northern coast of Eubœ'a, and it was still superior to the Grecian fleet in strength. Several engagements took place between them, which, though not decisive, were favorable to the Athenians and served to animate their spirits. News of the battle of Thermopylæ induced the Grecian fleet to withdraw from the neighborhood of the Persian army, which now took possession of Eubœa. Xerxes advanced through Pho'cis, burnt its cities and laid waste the country.

B. C. 480.

9. The Peloponnesians, forgetful of the claims of their allies,

set about fortifying their peninsula by a strong wall extending across the isthmus from the gulf of Corinth to the gulf of Athens. When the Athenians found themselves deserted, they abandoned their city. Almost all the male citizens went aboard the ships, piously trusting, through faith in the oracle, to their "wooden walls." The protection of the city was solemnly committed to Minerva, and the women and children were sent to Sal'amis and Ægina. Xerxes advanced and took Athens. He burnt the citadel and slaughtered the few remaining citizens who had valiantly defended it. The finest paintings and statuary he sent to adorn Susa, now the capital of his own dominions.

10. Eurybiades, with the most of the confederates, desired to retreat with the Grecian navy near to the isthmus of Corinth, where the Grecian land forces were stationed. But Themistocles urged the necessity for maintaining the advantageous position which they occupied in the strait of Salamis. At the same time, in order to oblige the Greeks to fight, he used a stratagem which brought the Persians to threaten them at both ends of the strait. Nothing was left to the Greeks but united resistance. The Persian fleet was far superior in numbers to theirs. The land army, with Xerxes at its head, was drawn up on the Attic shore. The vain monarch, confident that he should but witness an easy conquest, was struck with astonishment and dismay when he found the valor of the Greeks prevailing, and at length beheld the destruction and flight of his mighty armament. Alarmed for his personal safety, he was siezed with an eager desire to escape from a country where victory itself had been to him scarcely more than another name for defeat. Fearing, from secret advices, that his bridge across the Hellespont might be destroyed, he hastened to depart, leaving three hundred thousand of his best forces under Mardonius, by which he still hoped to subjugate the country.

B. C. 480.

11. The Greeks pursued as Xerxes fled before them, for forty-five days, during which his army suffered great distress from famine. At length disease appearing among them, he left them behind, and with only a few attendants hurried forward. Finding his bridge across the Hellespont destroyed, he did not delay in order to chastise the sea a second time, but crossed it in a small fishing boat. The remains of the Persian fleet were stationed at

Samos, to prevent the revolt of some of the provinces of Asia Minor. Mardonius, with his troops, retired for winter quarters into Thessaly. In the following spring Mardonius sent an embassy to persuade the Athenians to separate themselves from the Grecian confederacy. The Spartans, now fearing the effect of that selfish policy which had left the Athenians to struggle alone, dispatched messengers to assure them of their determination to send them immediate succor, and to beseech them not to sacrifice Grecian freedom to the security of their own city. To the emissaries of Mardonius, Aristides, who was now at the head of affairs, returned a respectful but decided negative; and he requested the Spartans to send their promised forces into Bœ'otia, to prevent the retaking of Athens. Mardonius, on learning the result of his negotiation, advanced into Attica, laying waste the whole country. The Athenians, receiving no succor from their allies, again abandoned their city. They now retired to Salamis. Mardonius consigned Athens to destruction, burning and demolishing whatever had been spared the preceding year.

B. C. 479.

12. Mardonius retired into Bœotia, near the city of Thebes, whose inhabitants were in the Persian interest, and where larger plains would enable him to employ his cavalry to greater advantage. The Grecian forces, amounting to seventy thousand men, under the command of Pausa'nias, king of Sparta, and Aristides, the Athenian general, pursued him. Here occurred the memorable battle of Platæ'a, where the Greeks obtained a splendid victory. The remains of the Persian fleet were at the promontory of Myc'ale; the ships were drawn ashore, surrounded by a rampart and guarded by sixty thousand men. On the same day of the victory at Platæa the Greeks, commanded by Xan'thippus, attacked and defeated them, carried the rampart and burned the Persian fleet. These two successes delivered Greece forever from the most formidable invasion of which history makes mention.

B. C. 479.

13. Thrace was about this time subjugated by the confederated Greeks under Pausa'nias and Ci'mon; and Byzan'tium,[1] the capital, with its rich treasures, fell into their hands. Although the Persians had been forced from Europe, yet the confederated Grecian

[1] Byzantium, afterwards Constantinople, was probably founded by a colony from Argos.

powers now followed them into Asia, with intent to set the Asiatic Greeks free from their dominion. Xerxes had been succeeded by his son Artaxer'xes, who had collected a large naval force at the mouth of the river Euryme'don, and a land force on its banks. A Greek expedition under Cimon attacked and defeated the fleet. Then Cimon, decking himself and some of his followers in rich Persian dresses, and going aboard Persian galleys, sailed up the river and was gladly received in the camp of the deceived enemy, who, thus taken by surprise, were, in their horror and amazement, easily overcome. The spoils of the camp were immense, and riches now flowed in upon Greece.

QUESTIONS.—Of what was Greece composed? Which states were at the head of Greece? In what manner did the Persians demand submission? How did the several states answer them? Relate the military arrangements of Darius. The number of his ships. His troops. Their progress until they arrived at Marathon. What forces on the part of the Greeks opposed this formidable army? What account can you give of Miltiades? Describe the great battle of Marathon. How was Miltiades treated? What was done by Darius? What were the first measures of his successor? What was done by Xerxes in relation to the invasion of Greece? Relate Xerxes' passage of the Hellespont—the size of his army—of his fleet. What measures were taken by the Greeks? How did Themistocles persuade the Athenians to increase their navy? Who were the naval commanders? What account can you give of Aristides? Relate the conduct and fate of Leonidas. Where was Thermopylæ? Relate the naval operations—the progress of the Persian fleet and army. What circumstances preceded the destruction of Athens? What attended it? What circumstances led to the battle of Salamis? What was the position and the conduct of Xerxes? Relate his flight into Asia. What army did he leave? Relate the circumstances of the second capture of Athens. Give an account of the battle of Platæa—of Mycale.

VI. The Age of Pericles.

1. The glory of the Greeks was now at its meridian height. Having become the terror of surrounding nations by their success in arms, they became not less celebrated for excellence in the arts and in the pursuits of philosophy. As to their mythology, it furnished a splendid imagery to the poet; yet, as it taught the worship of divinities who according to popular belief were murderers, thieves, and adulterers, it exercised an injurious effect upon the public morals. Hence arose different sects or schools of philosophy, embodying purer and better systems.

2. These schools arose at Athens. Of all the ancients, Soc'rates, in his doctrines of the unity and perfections of the Deity and the immortality of the soul, comes the nearest to Christianity. He affirmed his belief that a spirit attended him.

B. C. 440. Pla'to, his scholar, taught the unity of the Godhead, the immortality of the soul, and man's moral obligation to conduct himself in a manner worthy of the high dignity of his nature.

B. C. 390. Aristotle (Ar'istot'l), the most distinguished of the pupils of Plato, was the founder of the Peripatet'ic school, whose doctrines concern the physical nature of men and things, and deal much in the subtleties of logic. Ze'no, the founder of the Sto'ics, taught that virtue, not happiness, is the chief good

B. C. 330. —the object and aim of man's existence. The Egyptian priests, although they led the people to worship many gods, yet secretly taught their pupils that there is but one God. Pythag'oras, who had received from them their doctrines,

B. C. 560. taught this to his scholars at his famous school of Croto'na, in Italy, but privately. The democratic philosophers of Athens taught publicly for the good of mankind at large, whom they respected, what they themselves believed.

3. The elegant arts of poetry, painting, sculpture, and architecture were also at this period carried to a perfection never equaled in any other age or country. Much credit for patronizing the arts and sciences is due to Per'icles, who now obtained the ascendency in Athens, and preserved his authority for the forty years comprising the golden age of Athenian history. Though born and nur-

B. C. 444. tured in the aristocracy, yet he artfully joined the democratic party, in order to undermine the influence of Aristides and Cimon. Aristides died, Cimon was banished, and Pericles ruled without a rival. Content with the substance of power, he forbore to excite envy by its pomp and titles. When he spoke, it was with force and eloquence. His administration was just and equitable, but still he was more his own than his country's friend. He corrupted the people by treasures, which he removed from Delphi to Athens. He caused the latter city to be embellished by means of splendid buildings, and superb statues executed by Phid'ias.[1] The envy which he shunned he thus drew

[1] The statue of Minerva was the pride of Athens; but when he was banished he made for the people of Elis a still nobler monument of his art, the statue of Jupiter Olympus, reckoned one of the wonders of the world. A temple of

upon Athens from the other states, and in this manner paved the way for attacks from without. While flattering the lowest of the people, he weakened the force of the laws, undermined the internal constitution of the state, and rendered it unable to make a vigorous resistance.

B. C. 432.

4. Such was the reputation for wisdom which Athens had at this period acquired in distant countries that a new nation, rising in the West, sent deputies to obtain the laws of Solon. This nation was Rome, destined to be the conqueror of Greece. About this time Herod'otus, the "father of history," read his work to a public assembly at Athens, and received flattering honors. Eurip'ides, Es'chylus, and Soph'ocles carried the Greek drama to its perfection. Though Greece was thus esteemed by other nations, yet her states, wanting a well defined system of confederacy, were no sooner delivered from foreign pressure than they exhibited a tendency to disunion among themselves. Athens and Sparta struggled for supremacy, and the other states for independence; and petty wars soon succeeded the great Persian conflict.

5. The first Sacred war occurred about this time. It was so called because it originated in a dispute arising from a claim of the Delphians to the sole care of the temple of Apollo, the seat of which was at Delphi. Three years after this, in a war with the Samians, the Athenians under Pericles prevailed, and took the island of Samos.

B. C. 448.

6. The Corcyr'ians, originally a colony from Corinth, who now surpassed the mother country, had hitherto declined joining any of the Grecian confederacies. Being at war with Corinth, they asked aid of Athens. Ten galleys were furnished them by the Athenians, but with orders to engage in the war only in case the Corinthians invaded the island of Corcyra. Hostile feelings, thus beginning between Athens and Corinth, were farther increased by a dispute respecting Potid'æa, a Corinthian colony in Macedonia which was a tributary ally of Athens; and a battle was fought between their forces near that city, in which the Athenians gained the advantage. The latter then laid siege to the place. The Corinthians sent a deputation to Lacedæmon, accusing

B. C. 436.

Minerva, situated on the Acropolis, was said to have been the most beautiful building ever erected. It was of pure white Pentel'ican marble. It was called the Par'thenon, because erected to a virgin goddess. Phidia was the chief architect.

the Athenians of having broken the articles of peace. They were willingly listened to by the envious rival of Athens.

QUESTIONS.—What was the state of Greece at this period? What was the character and spirit of their mythology? What schools of philosophy arose at Athens? What account can you give of Socrates?—of Plato?—of Aristotle?—of Zeno? What double-dealing was practiced by the Egyptian priests? Who was their scholar? What did he teach to his scholars? What difference was there in the manner of the Athenian sages? In what besides philosophy did the Greeks excel? Who patronized the arts and sciences? Give an account of Pericles and his administration. What nation sent to Athens for laws? What historian appeared at this time? What tragic poets? What effect had foreign wars upon Greece? Give some account of the works of Phidias. What was the position of the states of Greece with respect to each other when no longer pressed by foreign wars? Give some account of the first Sacred war. What was the cause of the Corinthian war? Where was a battle fought? What was the result? To whom did the Corinthians reply? In what spirit was their petition received?

VII. The Peloponnesian War.

1. Rivalry for the supremacy in Greece was impelling Athens and Sparta to a conquest fatal to their common country. Athens was the head of the Ionic race, Sparta of the Doric. Athens was regarded as a democracy, and the advocate of the people's rights; Sparta, as an aristocracy, and a defender of the privileges of favored classes. Athens, as mistress of the sea, demanded and could collect tribute from her allies, while Sparta made no such claim. For this reason, in the commencement of this contest between the two ruling powers of Greece, the public voice was favorable to Sparta. Even the Athenian allies, groaning under the burdens imposed on them, secretly looked to Sparta for deliverence.

B. C. 431.

2. Archida'mus, king of Sparta, at the head of the Peloponnesians, advanced into Attica. Pericles determined to prevent a battle, and to retaliate for the injuries of the people by a descent upon the Peloponnesian coast. The Spartan king desolated the country. The popular voice called loud for battle; but Pericles, though censured, remained firm in his purpose. The Athenian fleet meanwhile reached the Peloponnesus, ravaged the western coast, and so distressed the inhabitants that the Spartan army was recalled home for its defense. Thus each injured the other, while neither gained anything of value.

3. Athens suffered, the next year, a severe chastisement. A plague of a most virulent character broke out in the city, and multitudes of its population became its victims. Pericles lost all of his family by the plague; and at length, bowed down with sorrow, he died.

B. C. 430-429.

4. In the young Bras'idas, Sparta found a general who partially retrieved her affairs. He transferred the seat of war to the coasts of Macedonia, and took Amphip'olis, the most valuable of the Athenian possessions in Thrace. Thucyd'ides, the historian, had command of the Athenian squadron now stationed at Thasos, which he brought up as soon as he found Amphipolis was attacked. Though too late to prevent its surrender, he saved other cities which were threatened. For his failure, though he was innocent of any mismanagement, the Athenians banished him for twenty years. Cle'on was sent with an army to check the Spartans. An engagement ensued, in which both he and Brasidas were killed. A truce was made for fifty years, but it was not kept.

5. The chief power in Athens was now shared by Nic'ias, a nobleman of integrity and patriotism, and Alcibi'ades, the grandson of Pericles. The latter was born to wealth. He possessed uncommon beauty, and great power over the minds of others. But he was unprincipled and profligate. Hoping to acquire glory by the conquest of Sicily, he had prevailed on the Athenians, contrary to the wiser councils of Nicias, to send out a fleet against Syracuse, which had favored the Spartan cause. The most splendid and powerful armament which had ever sailed from Athens was fitted out, and Alcibiades and Nicias were appointed chief commanders. The night previous to the departure of the armament, some outrages having been committed upon the images of Mercury, which the Athenians discovered after it had sailed, suspicion rested upon Alcibiades. Being summoned home for trial, he left the fleet, fled to the Peloponnesus, and joined the Spartan cause.

6. Syracuse had sent to Sparta imploring aid against Athens. Alcibiades, determined to make Athens feel his resentment, had pleased the Spartans by conforming to their plain dress and severe manners; and he now artfully wrought upon their fears and their pride, and persuaded them not only to send supplies into Sicily, but also to make a fresh incursion into

B. C. 414.

Attica. The Athenians laid siege to Syracuse. A powerful Spartan force under Gylip'pus arrived. Nicias wrote home for reinforcements, which were sent out under Demos'thenes, a relative of the celebrated orator. The two generals were unable to sustain the siege. Battles were fought by sea and land, in which the blood and treasure of Athens perished. In attempting to retreat, both Nicias and Demosthenes were taken prisoners, and barbarously slain. The Athenians might have succeeded, had they not found a new source of power to encounter in the gold of Persia, which had found its way into the hands of their enemies. The satraps of Lydia and of the Hellespont, persuaded by Lysan'der, an accomplished Spartan, furnished them with powerful supplies.

7. Meanwhile Alcibiades, finding himself suspected at Sparta, had visited Sardis; and ingratiating himself with Tissapher'nes, the satrap of Lydia, he had rendered the latter favorable to Athens. At the same time he offered his own services to his dejected country. He was recalled and appointed general. Under his guidance the Athenian fleet was repeatedly victorious; Byzantium was taken, and the Athenian supremacy in Ionia and Thrace was established. About this time the Athenian fleet, during the absence of Alcibiades, and contrary to his orders, engaged at No'tium the Spartan admiral, Lysan'der, and was defeated. This drew upon Alcibiades the wrath of the inconstant populace. He was dismissed from the command without trial, and again became an exile. He retired to a village in Phryg'ia, and the Spartans instigated the Athenians to destroy him. They sent soldiers, who set fire to his house in the night. As he was attempting to escape, the soldiers, fearing to approach, killed him with arrows. One woman alone had sufficient regard for him to give his body a decent burial.

8. After various turns of fortune, Lysander again obtained a decisive naval victory. He entirely destroyed the Athenian navy, and reduced the allies of Athens to submission. He then blockaded Athens with his fleet, while at the same time it was besieged by land with the whole strength of the Peloponnesian forces. Famine at length compelled the Athenians to surrender and to accept such terms as their conquerors saw fit to impose. The walls of Athens were destroyed; its ships, with the exception of twelve, were given up; its exiles were restored, and its government was changed to an oligarchy under thirty rulers.

B. C. 405.

Sparta now ruled Greece; yet the constitution and laws of Lycurgus, under which she had risen to consequence, had become subverted by Persian gold and by other causes of corruption, and the self-sacrificing spirit of public virtue had passed from a degenerate people.

B. C. 405.

9. The chief power in Athens being vested in persons supported by the Lacedæmonian interest, the most cruel and arbitrary measures ensued. Crit'ias, the chief of the thirty tyrants, had formerly been banished from the city; and he now sought to gratify his revenge by shedding the blood of his countrymen. Yet amidst the scenes of tyranny, murder, and profligacy which reigned in Athens, one individual shines forth with the lustre of virtue. Socrates, the philosopher, conforming his practice to the principles of morality which he taught, resisted with calmness and intrepidity the torrent of vice.

B. C. 404.

10. The reign of the tyrants could not long continue. In the same year in which it was established, the virtuous Thrasib'ulus, at the head of a number of his exiled countrymen, entered the city, attacked and defeated the tyrants. Favored by a Spartan party under Pausa'nias, the king, he procured the banishment of the tyrants, and the restoration of Solon's constitution. But the better spirit of Greece had departed. The tyranny of the many followed that of the few. This fact is strikingly illustrated by the condemnation of Socrates. His death was procured by the Soph'ists, a sect whose opinions he justly despised. Having taken the poisonous hemlock, which he was commanded to drink, he calmly conversed with his friends till the moment of his death. One of his disciples expressed his regret that he should die innocent. Socrates said, with a smile, "Would you have me die guilty?"

B. C. 401.

QUESTIONS.—To what was the rivalship between the two first powers of Greece impelling them? How were the respective situations of Athens and Sparta contrasted? Describe the Spartan operations in Attica—the Athenian operations in the Peloponnesus. Give an account of the plague in Athens. What did the Spartans propose? What distinguished men are mentioned in this paragraph? What became of them? Give an account of Nicias. Who was Alcibiades? What disastrous war did he promote? What treachery to his country did he practice? Give an account of the Sicilian war. What was the condition of Athens? What part did Alcibiades now act? What occurred at Notium? What was the consequence to Alcibiades? What occurred at Egos Potamos? After this

disastrous defeat, what happened to Athens? What state was now at the head of the Greek confederacy? What was the condition of Athens under the thirty tyrants? By whom were they expelled? What account can you give of the death of Socrates?

VIII. The Theban Supremacy.

1. During the decay of the Athenian power Thebes, the capital of Bœo'tia, had been increasing in strength. The Lacedæmonians plundered the holy land of E'lis. This gave the Thebans a pretext to oppose the tyranny of that state. Agesila'us, at the head of an army, passed through northern Greece, and entered Bœotia. A battle between the Spartans and Thebans was fought near Coronæ'a, in which the former obtained a complete victory. Their success by land was counterbalanced by the loss of a naval battle near Cni'dus, where their fleet was destroyed by the Athenians and Persians under Co'non. Sparta here lost her maritime supremacy. This war desolated Greece for eight years. Persia, whose gold had fomented it, dictated the conditions of the peace, and obtained for herself the cession of the Asiatic colonies.

2. A plan for restoring the liberty of Thebes was formed by some Theban exiles, headed by one of their number, the intrepid Pelop'idas. They left Athens in disguise, and entered Thebes in the night. They completely surprised their opponents and, throwing open the prison doors, proclaimed liberty to all the citizens. Pelopidas was appointed governor; and receiving aid from Athens, he besieged the citadel. The Lacedæmonians, after a few days' resistance, capitulated on condition of being allowed to return to their country. Athens, since the expulsion of the tyrants, had regained a part of her former influence. Her navy, which had been destroyed, was now increased, and the fortifications of the Piræ'us rebuilt. From Athens, Thebes hoped to derive aid; but when the Lacedæmonians entered Bœotia with a powerful army the Athenians, struck with terror, shrunk from the war and renounced their alliance with Thebes.

B. C. 380.

3. The Lacedæmonians, being now at peace with Athens and in alliance with the other Grecian states, advanced under Cleombro'tus, one of their kings, with a powerful army into Bœotia. Nothing was left to the Thebans but victory or entire destruction. In Epaminon'das they had a general suited to a great emergency. A decisive engagement was

B. C. 371.

fought at Leuc'tra, in which this general, aided by Pelopidas, led on to a Theban victory. The Lacedæmonians had the mortification (unfelt for ages) of being vanquished by inferior numbers.

4. Epaminondas pushed his success, invaded the Peloponnesus, and penetrated even to Sparta. He had introduced a new and improved system of military tactics, and was considered the ablest commander in Greece. The Laconians,[1] long oppressed by the Spartan aristocracy, took advantage of the occasion to revolt, and were joined by many of the Helots. Athens, now jealous of Thebes, sent an army to the assistance of the distressed Spartans. Both the Lacedæmonians and the Thebans had sent to the Persian king for aid. He, declaring in favor of Thebes, issued decrees in which he assumed over Greece a superiority offensive alike to Sparta and to Athens.

5. The aim of Thebes at supremacy in Greece was now apparent, and produced disaffection of her allies. Her greatness, depending on the talents of her generals Pelopidas and Epaminondas, could not survive them. Pelopidas, being again sent against the Thessalians, won a battle but fell in the combat. Epaminondas advanced into the Peloponnesus. Though deserted by a part of his allies, he fought with desperate bravery the renowned battle of Mantine'a, where in the moment of victory he was slain. With him the power of Thebes expired.

B. C. 362.

6. The Amphictyon'ic council, which during the supremacy of Athens and Sparta possessed little power, had arisen again into something of its former importance. The Thebans now prosecuted the Lacedæmonians for the seizure of the citadel, and obtained a decision of the council in their favor, Lacedæmon being fined 500 talents. Another decree of the Amphictyons, less just, proved disastrous in its consequences. A vague and doubtful tradition existed that the rich Cirrhe'an plain, which had long been cultivated by the Pho'cians, furnishing subsistence to many of them, had anciently been consecrated by the Amphictyons to the Delphian Apollo. A decision was now obtained by the Thebans, who were inveterate enemies of the Phocians, compelling them to cease from the use of the sacred land and to pay a heavy fine for its former occupancy. This gave rise to a civil war of ten years' continuance, which embroiled all Greece, and which is known by the name of the "Second Sacred War."

B. C. 357.

[1] Country people surrounding the city of Sparta.

QUESTIONS.—What state of Greece was now rising to power? By whom was the battle of Coronæ fought? Give an account of the naval battle and its consequences. What is said of the peace which was concluded? How did Thebes regain her liberty? Did the Athenians continue to aid them? Had their condition improved? What great commander had the Thebans? What important battle was fought? What further account can you give of Epaminondas? What part did the Persian king act? What was now the aim of Thebes? On what did her greatness depend? What was the fate of the two generals? What council do we again hear of? What decision did they make in the case of the Thebans and Spartans? What gave rise to the Phocian, or second Sacred war?

IX. The Macedonian Empire.

1. The supremacy of Sparta was annihilated; the short-lived glory of Thebes was past; and Athens, though increasing in strength, was still unable to make good any claim of authority over the other states. Philip, king of Macedon, a man of powerful and cultivated talents, took advantage of the times to forward his own ambitious views. This prince had been the pupil of Epaminondas, and had learned of him the system of military tactics, which he had invented. Macedonia, but little known before the Persian invasion, was supposed to have been originally peopled from Argos, though it was not considered one of the Grecian states. From the first Greek invasion to the battle of Platæa it was subject to Persia. Subsequently it became independent, and now under Philip it was rising to power.

B. C. 360.

2. This ambitious monarch designed it to become *the head of Greece.* For this purpose it was necessary to procure its admission into the Grecian confederacy. The Phocians, by the plunder of the temple of Delphi, had rendered their cause unpopular, and Philip joined the Thebans. The Phocians were conquered, and the council of the Amphictyons decreed that the Amphictyonic rights of the Phocians should be transferred to the Macedonians. This was highly displeasing both to the Spartans and to the Athenians. But the crafty Macedonian had his faction in every state of Greece. In Athens there was, however, a powerful party against him, led by the great orator Demos'thenes, and Phocion, a celebrated Athenian. Aware of Philip's subtle policy, and foreseeing in its success the destruction of the remains of Grecian freedom, they resolutely opposed it.

3. The faction of Philip again excited the religious sensibilities of the people to use them for his interest. The Lo'crians were

now accused of cultivating the sacred lands of Apollo, and this new sacrilege must be avenged. The obsequious Amphictyons met, and made Philip their general. Demosthenes, in notes of thunder, raised a voice of such severity that to this day the overwhelming accusations of orators are called "philippics." He so far prevailed that Athens and Thebes headed an armed league against him. Philip met the army of the allies at Chærone'a. He was completely victorious, and the independence of Greece received its death-blow. A Macedonian garrison was placed in the citadel of Thebes. But the measures of Philip towards his conquered foes were mild and forbearing. Instead of proceeding towards Athens as a conqueror, to take vengeance on his enemies, he released the Athenian prisoners without ransom, and offered peace.

B. C. 346.

B. C. 338

4. Philip next meditated the bold scheme of the conquest of Persia. He summoned a general assembly of the Amphictyons, who met at Corinth and determined on its invasion. Philip, of course, was appointed captain-general of the Grecian forces. Philip died within the year; but he left a son, Alexander. The son, from his earliest years, manifested great talents and a haughty but generous spirit. While yet a boy he broke the celebrated horse Buceph'alus, and ever after controlled that fiery animal, which never suffered any other man to mount him. The philosopher Aristotle, invited by Philip, had been the preceptor of the prince, and had instructed him in all the learning of the times.

B. C. 336.

5. On Alexander's accession to the throne of Macedon he first turned his arms against the barbarians. Having subdued them, he hastened to chastise the revolted Thebans. He stormed their city, and with a cruelty which he afterwards repented, caused their old men and their women and children to be killed, and their houses to be leveled to the ground, sparing only the house of the poet Pin'dar. Athens now trembled, for Alexander said, "Demosthenes called me a boy; but I will show him, before the gates of Athens, that I am a man." But the Athenians submitted; and Alexander, needing their services, spared them.

6. Another council of the Amphictyons was called to meet at Corinth. All the deputies except those of Lacedæmon, being awed by the arms of Alexander, appointed him commander of the Grecian forces, and again sanctioned the attempt to conquer Persia.

With an army of not more than 30,000 foot and 500 horse, Alexander advanced and crossed the Hellespont. Mem'non, the most effective general of Dari'us, with an army of 600,000, gave him battle at the ford of the rapid Grani'cus. Alexander and his troops fought like madmen. Hard pressed, he was himself saved by his friend Cli'tus from the stroke of a Persian battle-ax. At length the Greeks forced the passage of the river, and defeated the Persians with great slaughter. Sar'dis submitted to the conqueror. The Grecian cities of Asia willingly became his allies; and by conciliation or force, he made himself master of all Asia Minor.

B. C. 334.

7. The ensuing year he met, near Is'sus, the main army of the Persians, under the command of Darius himself, and again Alexander was the victor. The slaughter of the Persians was immense. Darius and a part of his cavalry escaped, but his wife and family fell into the hands of Alexander, who treated them with hospitality and respect. Instead of pursuing Darius, the conqueror took Damas'cus, and then marched into Phœnicia. Some of the cities submitted to him without resistance; but Tyre, still the wealthiest and most powerful, maintained a siege of seven months, after which it was taken by assault. Egypt, to which he immediately proceeded, next submitted. During his stay in that ancient country he founded the city of Alexandria. He visited the temple of Jupiter-Ammon, in Lybia, from a vain-glorious desire to be called the son of Jupiter.

B. C. 333.

B. C. 332.

8. The ensuing spring he again marched towards Persia; and having crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, he met at Arbe'la 700,000 Persians, commanded by Darius, and fought there a more desperate battle than even that of Issus. Although the situation was more favorable to the Persian cavalry, the military skill of the Macedonian phalanx gave them the victory. Darius again fled. His army was now destroyed, and his power was at an end. Alexander obtained possession of the southern provinces of his empire almost without resistance. So rapid were his movements that Darius, who fled before him, was compelled to retreat in Bactria, while all Media yielded to the conqueror. The friendless monarch was here inhumanly murdered by a dependent named Bes'sus, the governor of the province. For this act of ingratitude and treachery he expected to be rewarded; but Alexander eventually punished his crime by a cruel death.

B. C. 331.

9. The conqueror, wishing to assimilate the people of his extensive empire, adopted the Persian dress, married Stati'ra, the daughter of Darius, and caused many of his officers to marry Persian women. He spent three years, partly in the intoxicating enjoyment of the immense wealth which he found in the royal cities of Babylon, Su'sa, Ecbata'na, and Persep'olis. In the latter place, at the instigation of Tha'is, an Athenian courtesan, he set fire to the palace. A part of the time he devoted to reducing the remaining provinces of his empire to entire subjection.

10. New schemes opened up before the conqueror. But his troops, long absent from their country, and insensible to the glory of extending conquests from which they could not hope to derive any advantage, murmured and turned their eyes wistfully towards Greece. They liked not Alexander's adoption of the Persian dress, and his evident preference for Oriental customs. He had become changed by his conquests, by intemperance in wine, and by the indulgence of his passions. In the fury of his anger he had caused his devoted friend Parme'nio and his son to be executed; and with his own hand, in a drunken revel, he had killed Cli'tus, who saved his life at the Granicus. His troops, in disgust, revolted; but when their favorite commander showed his stern displeasure, the veterans came unarmed and stood for two days imploring his clemency. He wept, forgave them, made them presents, and led them forth again, to make, as he vainly believed, the conquest of the world. He carried his arms beyond the Indus, with uniform success. Again the army remonstrated; and after erecting twelve altars at the utmost limit of his conquests, Alexander turned his course. When he regained the Indus, he found there his fleet under Near'chus. Embarking with a part of his army, he sailed down the Indus to its mouth, and thence marched through Gedro'sia, Carama'nia, and Persia. This was a perilous march, where Alexander had great occasion to exercise his rash valor and his generous condescensions.

B. C. 327.

11. The sufferings of his army were severe; but their courage was sustained by the reflections that their course was homeward, and their spirits were cheered by the noble conduct of their commander. On one occasion, in a time of great drought, a little water was found, from which a soldier filled a helmet and brought it to the thirsting prince. Alexander looked upon his famished troops, and poured the water on the ground, not choosing to enjoy

a refreshment in which his companions could not share. Arrived at Babylon, he devoted himself during the remainder of his life to the improvement of that city, having selected it, from its commanding situation and central position, for the seat of his empire.

It was Alexander who first projected the plan of opening a communication between Europe and India through the Nile, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean. But he, whose will never bowed to man, could not resist the stern messenger. After having been the means of death to so many of his fellow-beings, he sickened with a fever occasioned by his excesses, and died in the thirty-third year of his age. He left many of his projects unfinished, and his extensive empire, unsettled and insecure, soon to become a prey to anarchy.

B. C. 323.

His ambition was to make the world a Greek world; and he succeeded so far as to extend the Greek civilization over many lands and peoples.

QUESTIONS.—What was now the condition of the principal states of Greece? Give an account of Philip of Macedon—of Macedonia. How did Philip procure the admission of Macedonia into the Grecian confederacy? Give some account of his eloquent opponent. By whom was the battle mentioned fought? How did he treat the conquered? What bold scheme did Philip next meditate? What was done by the Amphictyons? What change of sovereigns occurred? What was the state of Alexander's empire on his father's death? What account can you give of Alexander's early years? Who was his preceptor? What were his first measures as a sovereign? What course was taken by the Amphictyons? What was the condition of Persia? Give an account of Alexander's expedition up to the time of the battle of Issus. Relate the circumstances attending the battle of Issus. What places did Alexander next conquer? What city was founded? Give an account of the battle in which the Persian power was finally broken. What was the fate of Darius? What marriage is here related? What change in costume, etc.? How did Alexander spend the succeeding three years? What were the causes of the revolt of the army? What was the manner of their return to allegiance? Beyond what river did Alexander penetrate? What did he erect? Trace Alexander's homeward route. What was his conduct to his soldiers? What city did he choose as his metropolis? What project did he form? What can you say of his death? What was Alexander's ambition? How far was it realized?

X. The Decay of Greece.

1. After the death of Alexander his vast empire presented a scene of unceasing tumult and bloodshed. His ambitious and

unprincipled generals were each eager to seize a share of the mighty wreck. The rights of his infant son Alexander and of his brother Aridæ'us, afterwards called Philip, were acknowledged, and they were styled kings. Their power, however, existed only in name. The dying monarch, being asked whom he desired should succeed him, replied: "The most worthy." He gave his ring to Perdic'cas, who was made commander-in-chief. Conflicting interests and mutual animosities produced wars and assassinations. The only character of virtue sufficient to shed a ray of moral light on this dark picture was Eume'nes, who alone was faithful to the interests of the royal family. In fact, the first twenty years from the death of Alexander present a tissue of intrigue and crime unsurpassed in the history of the world. His wife, his mother, his son, and all the other members of the royal family were murdered. Perdiccas shared the same fate.

B. C. 323.

2. A league was at length formed between four of the generals, Ptol'emy, Lysim'achus, Seleu'cus, and Cassan'der. A battle was fought, in which they obtained a victory over Antig'onus and his son Deme'trius Poliorce'tes, who had for some time had the chief authority. The empire was now divided into four parts, and one part assigned to each of the four generals who formed the league. Ptolemy assumed the regal power in Egypt; Seleucus, in Syria and Upper Asia; Lysimachus, in Thrace and Asia Minor as far as Taurus; and Cassander took as his share Macedonia.

B. C. 301.

3. Under Ptolemy surnamed So'ter, Alexandria, which he made his capital, rapidly rose until it became the seat of commerce and the sciences. Ptolemy protected the national religion, which procured him the love and submission of his people; while his kind and courteous behavior to the foreigners drew multitudes, especially of Jews, to his capital. Of all the successors of Alexander, Ptolemy alone was fitted to build up an empire; and though sometimes drawn into the wars of the other princes, he generally preserved Egypt in peace, and transmitted the kingdom entire. His reign, with that of his two immediate successors, Ptolemy Philadel'phus (the most magnificent of the family) and Ptolemy Euer'getes, comprised a whole century, during which Egypt a second time became the seat of learning. The famous Library of Alexandria was collected, and the city was thus made

B. C. 301.

B. C. 247.

B. C. 222.

the resort of the learned from every part of the world. After the time of Ptolemy Euergetes the race became degenerate, and the Romans obtained the ascendency. The Jews were subject to the Ptolemies until the time of Anti'ochus the Great. Numbers of them were brought to Alexandria, where they made great progress in sacred literature, and completed the Greek version of the Sacred Books of the Old Testament, which version is called the "Sept'uagint."

4. Seleu'cus, the founder of the dynasty of the Seleu'cidæ, obtained after the battle of Ip'sus the government of the extensive provinces of Alexander's empire in Asia, except Palestine and the country adjacent to Egypt, which were governed by Ptolemy. In the early part of his reign Seleucus made Babylon the seat of his empire. He marched to the Indus, to recover the countries which Alexander had there conquered; but he was met by Sandrocot'tus, a native sovereign, with an army of 600,000 and a prodigious number of elephants. Seleucus agreed to leave him in quiet possession of the 500 elephants. He was then called to the West to resist the aggressions of Lysimachus. He conquered the latter, and thus acquired large accessions to his empire. He extended commerce, and built cities, of which An'tioch, in Syria, was the principal. This city he made his capital.

B. C. 301.

5. Alexander had left his government at home to Antipa'ter, the faithful counselor of his father and of himself. On the death of the conqueror the European provinces were assigned to him. On his decease a state of war and anarchy ensued. Cassan'der, by the battle of Ipsus, which established the league of the four generals, became king of Macedonia and of a part of Greece. After his short reign the feeble princes, his sons, suffered the kingdom to fall into a distracted state; and Alexander, then king, called to his aid Pyr'rhus, king of Epi'rus, and Deme'trius Poliorce'tes. Demetrius, learning some time after that Alexander was plotting his assassination, killed him and usurped his throne. Pyr'rhus expelled him. He again was supplanted by Lysima'chus of Thrace, who, like the others, retained his power but a short period. Family quarrels brought on a war with Seleucus Nica'tor; and in a battle in Phrygia, Lysimachus was defeated and slain. The whole of Asia Minor and Syria was now united to Macedonia and Thrace.

B. C. 318.

B. C. 296.

B. C. 294.

B. C. 281.

Seleucus proclaimed himself king, but on his passage into Europe he was assassinated.

6. On the death of Alexander the Grecian states combined against Antipa'ter, who on this occasion appeared in arms against the Athenians, and to him they submitted. He demanded their orators. Demosthenes, to avoid falling into his hands, fled to a neighboring city and killed himself by poison. Antipater dying,

B. C. 322. Ptolemy and Cassander sent Deme'trius Phaler'eus, who ruled Athens for ten years. From his rule the Athenians were set free by that elegant and accomplished prince Demetrius Poliorce'tes, who had been sent by his father with a large fleet. After having been worshiped as a god by the Athenians, he was recalled, and with his father lost the battle of Ipsus, when the Athenians refused to receive him.

7. Yet it was in these degenerate days that the venerable Pho'cion lived, whose virtues Alexander had respected, and attempted to reward by lavish presents, none of which that independent Athenian would accept. Phocion never sought preferment, but he was forty-five times chosen general. So much was he in the habit of exposing vice with severity that generally some persons felt themselves reproved. Once, when all applauded, he turned in surprise to a friend, and asked, "Have I inadvertently let some bad thing slip by me unreproved?" He was ever the protector of the unfortunate; yet the Athenians condemned him. After he had taken the poison by which he was to die, he charged his son to forgive his destroyers.

8. Acha'ia made the last struggle for Grecian freedom. A union of twelve Achæan cities, possessed of democratic governments, and leagued on terms of perfect equality, had

B. C. 251. existed from the early ages of Greece until the death of Alexander the Great; but the confusion and troubles of the subsequent period had caused the dissolution of the league. A leader now arose in Ara'tus, a native of Sic'yon, who united the scattered portions of the league, of which he was made general, and to which he soon added Corinth and Meg'ara.

9. Sparta, corrupted by intercourse with Persia, had departed widely from the institutions of Lycurgus. A'gis, one of the best and most amiable of its kings, had attempted a reformation; but Leonidas, his colleague, caused him to be betrayed and assassinated. Sparta now received its independence as a gift from

Antigonus; and in the contest between its succeeding kings and the Eph'ori, it fell into anarchy and became the prey of tyrants.

B. C. 222. In a war with the Æo'lians, called the "Social War," the Achæans asked aid of Philip III of Macedon, whose kingdom, after an interval of peace, had become powerful. The Æolians were joined by the Spartans and, fatally for the independence of Greece, by the Romans, who, after the Carthaginian wars, subjugated the whole country. After the death of Aratus, another general arose among the Achæans, who in the Æolian wars more than supplied his place. Philopœ'men was deserving of a better age. But the valor and patriotism of a single man could not now avert the destiny of Greece.

B. C. 211.

B. C. 206.

QUESTIONS.—What was the condition of Alexander's empire after his death? What the character of his generals? What male relations did he leave? What was the fate of his family? Who alone was faithful to the royal family? What league was formed? How was the empire divided? Who had the part numbered first, and what was it? The same of the second? Third? Fourth? What can you say of Alexandria?—of Ptolemy?—of the condition of Egypt under its king? Who was his successor? Who his? How long did these three kings fill the throne, and at what time? What was collected? Who would naturally come to Alexandria? What was the character of the succeeding Ptolemies? What progress in sacred literature was made by the Jews of Alexandria? What were the royal successors of Seleucus called? What did they obtain? What account can you give of his expedition to India? By conquering Lysimachus, what countries did he gain? What things did Seleucus accomplish more serviceable to the world than war and murder. Name the Seleucidæ from Seleucus to Antiochus the Great. What account can you give of Antipater?—of Cassander and his sons? Who were invited to his aid by Alexander? What followed previous to the battle of Cyropedium? What is here related of Seleucus Nicator? What course did the Athenians take on the death of Alexander? Give an account of the death of Demosthenes. On what occasion was Athens visited by Demetrius Poliorcetes? How did the Athenians treat him? What account can you give of Phocian? What is said of Achaia? Of the Achæan league? What was the condition of Sparta? What attempt was made by Agis? What was done by Leonidas? What now became the condition of Sparta? What war again set the Grecian states to destroying each other? What foreign power did they suffer to interfere in their domestic quarrels? What can you say of Philopœmen?

ITALIA
(SEPTENTRIONALIS)
Roman Miles
20 40 60 80 100
Helvetii
Alpes Pennin.
Alpes Cottiæ
Alpes Maritimæ
Alpes Graiæ
Rhætia
Gallia Cisalpina
Gallia Transalpina
Ligusticus Sinus
Mare Ligusticum
Tyrrhenum Mare
Mare Inferum
Hadriaticum Mare
Corsica
Cyrnus vel
Ravenna
Rimini
Ancona
Pesaro
Fano
Sena Gallica
Rubicon Fl.
Arminium
Pisaurum
Fanum Fortunæ
Aesis Fl.
Metaurus Fl.
Flaminia
Æmilia
Via Cassia
Via Aurelia
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History of Rome.

I. The Legendary Story of Rome Under the Kings.

1. While the nations of Asia and of Greece seemed tottering on the verge of ruin Rome had arisen, and was destined ere long to become the mistress of the world. For the earliest history of the ancient Romans we have nothing better than tradition and the tales of poets. According to these Æne'as, with his father Anchi'ses, his son Asca'nius, and a small band of followers, fled from the destruction of ancient Troy, and sought refuge on the shores of La'tium, in western Italy. Here he married Lavin'ia, the daughter of Lati'nus, the king, and thus became the successor to the throne. Alba Longa, a city of Latinum, or Latin city, whose language shows that it must have had a cultivated population, is regarded as having been the parent city. Rom'ulus traced with a plow the place of the first walls of the new city, Rome.[1] He was the chief of a warlike band of men from Alba Longa, and was the first king of the new realm.

B. C. 753.

2. To provide inhabitants for Rome, Romulus invited strangers to settle there, granting them equal privileges with his subjects. Those of the citizens who could show a noble or even a free ancestry were termed Patri'cians and were admitted to a share of the government. Of these one hundred were selected, who formed a Senate. The remainder, called Plebe'ians, were subject to the king and Patricians, each individual with his household being attached to the head of some Patrician family, from whom he received protection and whom he was bound to serve. To the protector and dependant were applied the terms patron and client.

3. Four months after the founding of Rome, Romulus, wishing to provide wives for his followers, invited the Sabines to the celebration of a religious festival. His soldiers at a given signal

[1] The commonly received date of the founding of Rome is given here, both as a matter of convenience and because it may be approximately correct. But all other dates may be disregarded in this legendary period.

seized all the young women and carried them off. They married them, and treated them with so much kindness that the women at length became attached to their husbands; and when, some time after, the Sabines made war upon the Romans to recover them, they rushed between the combatants and pleaded with their fathers and husbands to live in peace and union. Their desires were granted, and the Sabines and Romans became one people.

4. The Senate was now doubled by the addition of a hundred Sabines. Romulus divided the citizens into three tribes, each tribe consisting of 300 men and separated into ten cu'riæ, each consisting of thirty men; over each of which curiæ was appointed a president, called curio. The Senate was the chief council of state. There was a national assembly, composed of the people assembled by curiæ, in which questions were decided according to the vote of the greater number of curiæ.

5. The first monarchs of Rome did not derive their crown from hereditary right, or (with the exception of the two first) possess unlimited power. On the death of Romulus, Nu'ma Pompil'ius, a Sabine, was elected to the throne. His reign was peaceful and just. Revered as a favorite of the gods, he caused it to be believed that he was honored with celestial communications by a divine nymph called Egeria, who met him in solitary places and gave him instructions in regard to many laws which he promulgated. He instituted different orders of priests. Their duties were performed by distinguished citizens, not set apart to the sacerdotal office. But an order of priestesses, called the vestal virgins, were thus set apart; and it was their duty to guard, in the temple of the goddess Vesta, a fire which they were taught to believe was sacred and must never be permitted to go out. Numa built the temple of Ja'nus, which was always to be open in time of war, but closed in time of peace. The laws of Numa tended to refine and soften the ferocious manners of the followers of Romulus.

6. The next king, Tul'lus Hostil'ius, made war upon Alba to force its people to a union of the two cities. It was at length agreed that three champions should be chosen by each party to decide by battle whether Alba should be the subject or the mistress of Rome. The Romans chose three brothers, the Hora'tii, and the Albans the three cousins of the former, the Curia'tii. The six fought till five were dead. The

B. C. 672.

survivor was Horatius, who hastened to receive his honors. His sister met him, bearing the robe which she had wrought for Curiatius, her lover, one of the slain. She wept and tore her hair, and bitterly reproached her brother, who then plunged his sword into her bosom. For this he was condemned to death by the Senate, but was pardoned by the people. Alba was razed, and its inhabitants removed to Rome.

7. An'cus Mar'tius established the superiority of the Romans over Latium, and extended the territory of Rome to the sea. He established the colony of Os'tia, at the mouth of the Tiber, and made it the port of Rome. Tarquin'ius Pris'cus, who was next chosen king, continued the wars of Ancus Martius with the Latins, and conquered the Æ'qui. He added a hundred new members to the Senate; and forming three new tribes from among the Plebeians, united them to the Patricians.

B. C. 640.

B. C. 616.

8. Ser'vius Tul'lius was the next king. He produced changes in the government, which laid the foundation of the future republic. He divided the whole nation into thirty tribes, four of which were continued in the city, each tribe having a magistrate who was its head and representative. He also caused an estimate of the property of each citizen to be made; and separating the Eq'uites, who comprehended the Patricians and the wealthiest of the people, he divided the rest into five classes, which were again divided into *Centuries,* or hundreds. The efforts of Servius to raise the privileges of the Plebeians were resisted, though ineffectually, by the Patricians, and brought upon him their enmity.

B. C. 578.

9. Servius Tullius was murdered at the instigation of his unnatural daughter Tul'lia, by her husband, who thus became king, under the name of Tarquin'ius Super'bus, or Tarquin the Proud. He was successful in war, but his haughtiness and tyranny made him odius to the Romans. At length his son Sex'tus insulted Lucre'tia, a noble Roman lady. She summoned her husband Collati'nus, her father, and a relative named, from his supposed stupidity, Brutus. Calling on them to avenge her wrongs, she stabbed herself in their presence. Brutus arose and with thrilling eloquence vowed to avenge her wrongs and his country's. Sextus was killed, and his father expelled from the throne; and thus terminated the reigns of the Roman kings. The

B. C. 509.

only change at first effected by the expulsion of the kings was the transfer of the supreme authority to two magistrates, called consuls, who were annually elected.

10. The Tarquins attempted to recover the throne, and enlisted in their cause Por'senna, king of Etruria. While he waited with his army before Rome, Mu'tius, a Roman soldier, was captured in his camp, prepared to assassinate him. Porsenna was about to torture the soldier with fire. Mutius put his right hand into the flame; and calmly discoursing on the contempt which the lover of glory felt for bodily pain, he told the king that his death would not avail anything, for he was but one of 300 Roman youths who were banded for the Etrurian[1] king's destruction. Porsenna released him. The Etrurian army, in attempting to enter Rome, was stopped by the valor of Hora'tius Co'cles. He resisted an army single-handed till the bridge over the Tiber was broken down behind him, and then swam safe over. The courage of these two Romans so impressed the mind of the Etrurian king that he made peace and abandoned the cause of Tarquin.

11. A conspiracy also existed in Rome among the Patricians to restore the kingly office. With the conspirators were the sons of Junius Brutus, the avenger of Lucretia. He and her husband Collatinus were first chosen consuls. Brutus condemned to death the conspirators, among whom were his own sons. He witnessed their public execution, while his countenance displayed by turns the stern justice of the judge and the tender anguish of the father.

During the wars to oppose the Tarquins *a Dictator was appointed by the Senate,* and approved by the Patricians. He was to continue in office six months, with unlimited authority. From his decree there was no appeal. The populace, understanding this, and seeing the axes which were carried before him as symbols of his power, were struck with terror, and submitted to his rule.

QUESTIONS.—Is there good historical authority for the earliest accounts of the Romans? What story have we of Æneas? What is regarded as the parent city of Romulus and his colony? How was the extent of the first city marked? What was meant by Patricians and Plebeians?—by patron and client? How did Romulus provide his colony with wives? What did these women do when their fathers made war to recover them? Give an account of the Senate. How were the citizens divided? Was there an assembly of the people? Give an account of the administration of Numa

[1] Or Etruscan.

Pompilius. Describe the combat of the Horatii and the Curiatii. What was done in the reign of Ancus Martius?—of Tarquinius Priscus? What regulations were made by Servius Tullius? What can you say of Tarquin the Proud? What caused kingly government to be abolished? What king espoused the cause of Tarquin? What was done by Mutius to make him believe that it was dangerous to be an enemy to Rome? What exploit was performed by Horatius Cocles? Give an account of a conspiracy among the Patricians. Who were the first Consuls? What was the conduct of Brutus in regard to his sons? When was the first Dictator appointed? What account can you give of the office?

II. The Patricians and the Plebeians.

1. The Plebeians were originally treated with deference; but the Patricians had now seized the government, and the public lands no longer paid, as formerly, a tenth of their revenue to the state. The Plebeians, forced by taxation to become debtors, were made bond slaves; and in the dungeons of the Patrician houses they suffered the severest distress. At a time when Rome was threatened with a war by the Vol'sci the indignation of the populace was roused by the appearance of a man advanced in years, of a pale and haggard countenance, a squalid garb, and a withered, emaciated figure, who suddenly threw himself into the Forum.[1] He was recognized as a centurion of the army, who had shed his blood for his country. He showed to the people, who crowded around him, the cruel marks of recent stripes which his Patrician creditor, not content with his miserable incarceration, had inflicted.

2. Excitement spread from the Forum to all parts of the city. The Senate was alarmed. The multitude refused to enlist in the Volscian war, and the city seemed threatened with destruction from within and from without. The consul, Servil'ius, dismissed the Senate, and attempted to conciliate the people. He promised that their grievances should be redressed, and declared that he sought only for a delay until danger from the foreign foe should be over. To evince the sincerity of his declarations, he now ordered that no person should hold any Roman citizen in bonds or confinement so as to prevent his giving his name to the consuls; and that no person should take the goods of a soldier upon service, nor detain in custody his children or grandchildren. These measures

[1] The Forum was an open space, (marked out by Romulus, and surrounded with porticoes by Tarquinius Priscus,) in which the people assembled to speak upon, and transact public business.

quelled the tumult, and procured the enlistment needed. The Volsci were defeated; and after them the Sa'bines and Aurun'cians.

3. The Plebeians, now that peace was established, looked for the redress which they had been promised. But the Patricians disregarded their just claims; and open expressions and cabals proved that the discontent was deep and dangerous. The Volscians, Æquians, and Sabines, profiting by the occasion, again took up arms. The senate and consuls, in dismay, appointed a dictator.

B. C. 498. Lar'tius Vale'rius being chosen, in whose family the Plebeians had confidence, they deferred urging their just claims, again enlisted, and a force greater than had ever before been raised was now enrolled. The Roman soldiers returned victorious from the foreign war, only to see their hopes of relief again disappointed. Valerius, finding it impossible to bring the Patricians to reason, resigned his office. The Senate feared to disband the soldiers, and, believing they would feel themselves bound by their oaths to the consuls, determined upon retaining them in arms. By this measure, however, they only hastened the crisis which they dreaded.

4. The army, without waiting for the commands of the consuls, retired to Mons Sa'cer (the sacred mount), about three miles from the city. There, without any commander, they fortified their position. The Senate and Patricians, then at their mercy, sent deputies to the camp, who granted the demands of the Plebeians and allowed them a share in the government. Three officers, from

B. C. 498. their number, called tribunes, were appointed as magistrates and invested with inviolable privileges, having power to protect the people even against the consuls. All debts were canceled, and the debtors released; but the law remained unaltered. The tribunes were to be elected annually, and no Patrician was permitted to hold the office. Thus the contest between the Patricians and Plebeians seemed terminated.

5. But it was soon renewed. A famine broke out in the city, the lands having been untilled during the insurrection of the Plebeians. The sufferings of the people were intense. A quantity of grain was sent as a present by Ge'lo, king of Cicily. The Senate debated at what price it should be given to the people. Mar'cius Coriola'nus, a haughty Patrician who had signalized himself by his valor, proposed the restoration of the former rights of

the Patricians as the price of the supply. The people heard the proposal with deep indignation, and Coriolanus was summoned by their tribunes to a trial, and condemned to exile. He retired to the Volscians, and incited them to war with Rome. In the dusk of the evening his tall figure was espied by their general Aufid'ius, standing in his tent. Proudly he announced himself, and offered his services against his native city. Aufidius gladly accepting them, he marched to the attack and encamped within five miles of Rome. The Senate, unable to depend on the Plebeians for assistance, knew not what to do. Deputations were sent, but without success. The priests in their sacred garments went to him as suppliants, but in vain. The matrons then assembling around Vetu'ria, the mother of Coriolanus, and Volum'nia, his wife, who led his two little sons, proceeded in sadness to the Volscian camp. The stern warrior melted at the tears of his mother. Weeping, he said, "You have saved Rome, but destroyed your son." In a short time he drew off the Volscian troops. The Romans, in honor of this event, erected a temple to Female Fortune.

B. C. 491.

6. The Patricians and Plebeians were still jealous of each other. Dissensions arose concerning the disposition of some lands gained by a league with the Her'uli. Further changes in the government were demanded; and to obtain these, ambassadors were sent to Athens for copies of the Grecian laws. On their return, ten magistrates were created, called the decem'virs, who were to compile a body of laws for Rome. They were appointed for one year, with absolute power. During that time there were to be neither consuls nor tribunes. It was disputed whether Plebeians should hold this high office, and decided that they should not. During the first year the decemvirs executed their trust with impartial justice. Assiduously applying themselves to the framing of just laws, they produced the ten tables, which, after being examined in the assembly of the people, were approved and ratified. It was then said that two more tables were needed. For the purpose of adding these the office was continued another year, and new decemvirs were elected, at the head of whom was Ap'pius Clau'dius.

B. C. 451.

7. These decemvirs held secret meetings among themselves, and governed with haughtiness; and as at the expiration of the year they showed no intention to lay down their office, their tyranny

seemed likely to become perpetual. A most wicked act of Appius Claudius, which resulted in the death of the young and lovely Virgin'ia,[1] irritated the people to madness; and another revolution took place, by which the decemvirate was abolished, and consuls and tribunes were restored. During this period the cause of the Plebeians was gradually advancing. A law allowing the intermarriage of Patricians and Plebeians was passed, after much opposition. Another law, by which Plebeians should be admitted to the consulship, was proposed. The Plebeians, though unsuccessful in this, obtained as a sort of compromise the election of military tribunes with consular power, to be chosen from Patricians or Plebeians without distinction. The censorship, an office confined to the Patricians, was also about this time established.

B. C. 449.

B. C. 444.

8. In these broils between the Patricians and Plebeians, the common resort of the aristocracy was to weaken the people by employing them abroad in foreign wars. It was upon the occasion of the wars with the Equi and Volsci that the venerable Cincinna'tus, plowing in his field, received from Rome the messengers who announced to him that he was appointed dictator of the commonwealth. He left his fields and oxen with regret; and after leading the Romans to victory, he returned in sixteen days to his rural occupations.

B. C. 450.

9. The Romans, commanded by Camil'lus, besieged Ve'ii, an opulent city of Etruria, ten miles from Rome. The war being protracted from various causes for ten years, the soldiers were for the first time obliged to stay away from Rome during the winter. A schoolmaster of Fale'rii led forth for a walk his scholars, the sons of the most respectable families of the besieged city. The lads followed their teacher with confidence, but he wickedly led them by a circuitous route to the camp of their enemies, to deliver them to Camillus, who, thus possessing the children, might make his own terms with the parents. But the virtuous Roman, instead of taking advantage of this wickedness, or rewarding the pedagogue, put a whip into the hands of each of the boys, and bade them drive him back with

B. C. 405-395.

[1] Appius Claudius saw this lovely young girl in the streets, and determining to get her in his power, procured a base man to claim her as a slave. Her father in vain proved her his, for Appius was the judge. As she was about to be torn from him, the father plunged a dagger to her heart, regarding more her purity than her life.

lashes to the city, and tell their parents his treachery. By this means Camillus won the hearts of the people, who gave up the city. A regular stipend was in this war allowed the Roman soldiers.

10. In the meantime the Gauls, now first mentioned in history, invited by the fertility of the southern countries, poured like a sweeping torrent through the northern provinces of Italy. The Clu'sians, whose city they besieged, applied to the Romans for aid. The Romans dispatched an embassy to the Gallic camp, with offers of mediation. The offers were rejected. Then the Roman ambassadors entered Clusium, and engaged zealously in its defense. One of them being recognized in the act of killing a Gallic chief, Bren'nus, the leader of the Gauls, sent envoys to Rome, to complain of this breach of the law of nations and to demand that the offender should be given up; but the Romans haughtily disregarded the demand. Brennus marched instantly towards Rome. An army was hastily collected; but the soldiers, without striking a blow, fled in dismay from the strange appearance of their unknown enemies.

B. C. 390.

11. The Gauls continued their march fifteen miles, to the city. The citizens generally had abandoned it, and only some of the aged and a few of the consular rank remained. Their venerable appearance for a time stayed the fury of the barbarians. But at length they were put to the sword. The Gauls then besieged the citadel, which, when they were about to make a night assault upon it, was saved by the cackling of some geese, which awakened the sentinels. At length the Gauls agreed to quit the city on condition of receiving a large amount of gold, which was to be weighed. Brennus threw his sword into the scale with the weights, already complained of as too heavy. At this moment Camillus, who had been banished, entered the city at the head of an army, which he had collected. He told the Romans to put up their gold, and to redeem their city with iron. Thus aroused, they chastised the Gauls and expelled them from Rome. The barbarians, however, had burned much of it to the ground. The inhabitants wished to leave the spot, and to inhabit Veii; but Camillus prevented them. They soon rebuilt the city, though without order or regularity.

B. C. 385.

QUESTIONS.—What change had occurred in regard to the Plebeians? What incident roused up the oppressed people? What promises were made to the Plebeians by the consuls? What successes followed? Did the

Plebeians receive the promised redress? What was the consequence? How were the people again appeased? How were they again treated by the Patricians and the Senate? What bold step was taken by the soldiers? What concessions were thus forced upon the Patricians? What soon renewed the ill feeling between the opposing parties in Rome? What account can you give of the conduct of Coriolanus? How was Coriolanus won back to his country? What measures did the Romans take to procure a code of laws? What new magistrates were appointed? How did the first decemvirs execute their office?—those afterwards elected? What caused their office to be abolished? What laws were established which were favorable to the people? Give an account of Cincinnatus. What happened at the siege of Veii? What nation now invaded Italy? How did the Romans provoke Brennus? Give an account of his hostile visit to Rome—of his conduct when within the city—of the manner in which he was expelled.

III. The First and Second Punic Wars.

1. During the war for the conquest of the Latin states the people of Sam'nium had joined the Romans; but becoming jealous of the Roman power, they first withdrew from their alliance, and afterwards formed a league with several kindred tribes against them. In the wars which ensued, success was various. A Roman army under the command of the consuls Ti'tus Vetu'rius and Spu'rius Postu'mius was decoyed into a defile at the forks of the Caud'ine river, and there surrounded by the Sam'nites, so that either escape or battle was impossible. The whole Roman army, including the consuls, could obtain deliverance on no terms other than to pass unarmed and almost naked under the yoke.[1] Then making an agreement of peace, they were allowed to return.

B. C. 293.

B. C. 291.

2. This indignity produced in the breasts of the haughty Romans irreconcilable hatred towards the Samnites. The Senate and assembly of the people did not consider themselves bound by the treaty, but raised a formidable army to renew the war. In the battles which followed, the Romans sought to wash away their disgrace in the blood of their enemies; and the fierceness of their encounters surpassed anything in the previous history of Rome. They conquered Samnium, and after this no power in Italy remained capable of resisting them.

B. C. 290.

[1] The "yoke" was a kind of gallows composed of three spears, two of these being fixed in the ground, and the third laid across on the top of the others. Our word *subjugate* (from *sub*, meaning *under*, and *jugum*, meaning *yoke*) originated from this ceremonial.

The Etrurians were next vanquished. The Taren'tines became hostile, and invited to their assistance Pyr'rhus, king of Epi'rus.

B. C. 283. He found, on invading Italy, that he had not the enervated Persians to cope with, but a people who, it is probable, would have checked Alexander himself. His first battle with the Romans was at Pando'sia; and though it was fiercely

B. C. 280. contested, the military skill of Pyrrhus finally triumphed. But he said, *"Another such victory would ruin me";* and the polished Greeks, astonished at the tactics of the Romans, remarked, "These barbarians are by no means barbarous."

3. Pyrrhus ravaged the country, took the camp of the Romans, and marched towards the capital. When within fifteen leagues, he dispatched an ambassador with terms of peace. The Senate intrepidly replied that no terms would be received until the army of Pyrrhus should be withdrawn from Italy. Fabric'ius, a citizen of great worth, but poor, was sent as ambassador to procure the ransom of the Roman prisoners. Pyrrhus attempted to bribe him, but found him incorruptible. Pyrrhus next showed his terrible elephants; but the Roman was as little moved by fear as by avarice. The physician of Pyrrhus sent him proposals for destroying his master by poison. Fabricius informed his enemy of this treacherous purpose. Pyrrhus, touched with admiration and gratitude, released the Roman prisoners without ransom.

4. A Sicilian deputation now imploring his aid against the Carthaginians, Pyrrhus abandoned Italy and passed over to Sicily. Here he was at first successful; but after having relieved the Sicilians, he assumed so haughty a control over them that he lost their affections. The Tarentines, now reduced to distress by the Romans, solicited his aid; and he again embarked for Italy. He

B. C. 275. was totally defeated, and compelled to return to Epirus. The Romans had now made themselves masters of Italy; but the relations sustained by the conquered nations to Rome were various. Some were merely allies, retaining their internal constitution, but obliged to pay tribute and to furnish auxiliary troops when demanded; others were compelled to receive Roman magistrates, annually elected.

5. After the expulsion of the Athenians, Sicily was invaded by the Carthaginians, and lost Agrigen'tum and two other cities.

B. C. 367. Dionys'ius, the Sicilian general, conducted the war against them with ability, and acquired the confidence

of the people. Abusing it, he became the tyrant of Syr'acuse. He was of so suspicious a temper that he caused a room to be made for confining prisoners, from which, as from the human external ear to the tympanum, sound could be conveyed to an apartment where he sat to listen to their conversations. Thus knowing himself disliked, and fearing danger, he cruelly destroyed the lives of his subjects. Dam'ocles flattered him. "Thou shalt taste the sweets of royalty," said the tyrant. At a magnificent banquet the courtier sat and feasted; when, looking up, he saw a sword above him, suspended by only a hair.

6. Dionysius the Younger succeeded, and was a still more execrable tyrant. His cousin Di'on, and afterwards the amiable Corinthian Timo'leon, followed. But the Syracusans had not sufficient virtue to keep their recovered freedom. Agath'ocles, a man of low origin but of talents and military renown, seized the sovereign authority. He dying childless, affairs fell into confusion; and Pyrrhus was called over to reduce them to order, but in vain. Hi'ero, a descendant of Gelon, then obtained the regal authority.

B. C. 360-344.

7. Pyrrhus was carrying on the war with the Carthaginians, and had obtained some advantages, when the appearance of a new enemy united the Syracusans and Carthaginians for a time in a common league. A body of mercenary troops, called the Mamer'tines, whom Agathocles had employed in his wars, entered the city of Messi'na as friends, but murdered the inhabitants and obtained forcible possession of the city. The Carthaginians and the Syracusans were invited to aid the Messe'nians, while the Mamertines applied to the Romans. Justice inclined the Roman Senate to hesitate, but did not deter them from yielding to the stronger dictates of ambition, which prompted them to interfere, that they might turn the dissensions of their neighbors to their own advantage. They sent troops to the aid of the marauders. *And thus commenced the first Punic war.*

B. C. 264.

8. Hiero soon changed sides, united himself with the Romans, and formed with them a plan for the expulsion of the Carthaginians from Sicily. Agrigen'tum, after a siege of several months, fell into the hands of the Romans. During this siege they perceived the necessity for a navy, to contend successfully with Carthage. That nation was now mistress of the sea, and at the height of its power, possessing a large portion of Africa,

B. C. 263.

Spain and Sicily, with Sardinia and other islands. But Rome had a more free constitution; her warlike citizens fought their own battles, while those of Carthage were intrusted to men of other countries, who served for pay. A Carthaginian galley had been taken, which served the Romans as a model; and with incredible industry they set about building a fleet. To inure their men to naval exercises, benches similar to those of the galleys were prepared on land, where soldiers were taught to perform the action of rowing. In two months the fleet was equipped; and Duil'lius, the commander, sailed in pursuit of the enemy. The two fleets met, and the Romans obtained their first naval victory.

B. C. 260.

9. A project was formed for transferring the war to Africa. To prevent its execution, the Carthaginians hazarded and lost another naval engagement, which took place off the coast of Sicily. Reg'ulus, to whom was committed the African expedition, landed and took Tunis, where he encamped. The Carthaginians received a reinforcement from Greece, commanded by Xan'thippus, a Lacedæmonian of great military skill. Regulus was defeated and taken prisoner. The Carthaginians, tired of the war, sent Regulus to Rome to offer terms of peace, but bound him by oath to return if the terms offered were not accepted. By the advice of Regulus the Romans rejected them. True to his word, he returned a willing prisoner, and was barbarously tortured and destroyed.

B. C. 257.

B. C. 256.

10. The war was for some years carried on mostly at sea, and with so equal advantage that there was no prospect of peace. At length a decisive victory was obtained by Luta'tius, the Roman admiral, over the Carthaginian fleet. The Romans became masters of the sea, and deprived the Carthaginians of the means of conveying succor to their Sicilian cities. They, the Carthaginians, then made peace on condition of abandoning all their possessions in Sicily, paying the Romans a large sum of money, and restoring their prisoners without ransom. The Carthaginians thus exhibited a character the reverse of that of their enemies, who never, in the most disastrous days of the republic, purchased safety by submission to a foreign foe. Peace was hardly concluded when the Carthaginians were involved in a war with the mercenaries whom they had employed. Though finally victorious, the Carthaginian republic was greatly exhausted. The mercenaries

B. C. 241.

in Sardinia, catching the spirit of insurrection, arose, murdered their Carthaginian rulers, and obtained possession. The Romans, regardless of the peace with Carthage, interfered, and made themselves masters of the island. The Carthaginians remonstrated, but unable in their present weakened state to support their right by arms, they were obliged to submit to a second treaty, in which

B. C. 231. Sardinia was ceded to Rome. The injustice which the Carthaginians thus suffered rankled in their minds, and to this the second Punic war, though delayed some years, may be traced.

11. The Carthaginians sought compensation for their late losses, by extending their conquests over Spain. Here also the Romans jealously interfered, and a treaty was forced upon them, restricting their conquests to the further side of the Ibe'rus. These wrongs to his country were keenly felt by Hamil'car, the Carthaginian general in Spain. He had with him a son Han'nibal, a noble

B. C. 237. boy, whose heart he filled with the implacable enmity which burned within his own; and at the age of nine the father made him swear upon the sacred altar eternal enmity to Rome. This he was to declare when he could find or make a fitting occasion. Hamilcar and his son-in-law Has'drubal commanded in Spain for seventeen years. Most of the southern part of the Peninsula submitted to their arms. To secure their conquests, Hasdrubal built the city of New Carthage, or Cartagena.

12. After the close of the first Punic war, Rome sent a fleet into the Adriatic to put a stop to the depredations of the Illyrian

B. C. 229. pirates. This fleet secured the dominion of the Adriatic, and conquered a part of Illyria. The Grecian cities had suffered greatly from piratical incursions of the Illyrians. They now hailed the Romans as deliverers, and vied with each other in doing them honor. The Gauls, since the destruction of Rome by Brennus, had frequently made irruptions into the Roman provinces, having joined both the Etrurians and Samnites. The North, however, had remained quiet for some time, and as yet the Romans had not crossed the Po. Another irruption of the

B. C. 222. barbarians now took place, and a bloody war ensued, in which Emil'ius defeated them at Clu'sium, drove them beyond the Po, and added Cisalpine Gaul to the Roman dominions. On the death of Hasdrubal, Hannibal obtained the

command of the Carthaginian army in Spain. Bent on executing the plan, meditated by his father, of humbling the pride of Rome,

B. C. 219. he immediately besieged Sagun'tum, a city of Spain under Roman protection. Ambassadors were dispatched first to Hannibal, who refused on some frivolous pretense to admit them to an audience; then to the senate of Carthage, from whom they received no satisfaction. Meanwhile Hannibal prosecuted the siege with vigor, and at length took the city.

13. The fate of Saguntum was no sooner known to Rome than a war was declared, THE SECOND PUNIC WAR, of which Hannibal determined to make Italy the seat. With this view he prepared to pass the Alps, an achievement which the Romans believed to be altogether impracticable. He had previously taken measures to secure the favor of the nations through whose territories he must pass, having distributed gold with an unsparing hand among the barbarian chiefs. Early in the spring he commenced his march.

B. C. 218. Having reduced the nations which lay at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, he here left his general Han'no with a sufficient force to guard their narrow passes. He also dismissed about ten thousand of his troops, sending them home with a view to securing their good will.

14. The Gauls, being informed that the war was against Italy, not only allowed Hannibal to pass through their territories, but aided him on his way. On his arrival at the Rhone, however, he found the nations who dwelt on the opposite side drawn up to prevent his passage. He sent a detachment of troops farther up the river; they crossed it in secrecy and then came down upon the rear of the Gauls, who, finding themselves surrounded, immediately dispersed. Pub'lius Corne'lius Scip'io and Tibe'rius Sempro'nius were the Roman consuls for this year. To the former was assigned Spain; to the latter, Africa and Sicily. Scipio departed for his province; but finding that Hannibal had already crossed the Pyrenees, he stopped and pitched his camp at one of the mouths of the Rhone.

15. Hannibal, determined to avoid a battle, withdrew his forces from the sea, and followed up the waters of the Rhone until he arrived at the foot of the Alps. Here the hearts of the most courageous grew faint. The mountains, with their snowy tops penetrating the clouds, the naked and apparently inaccessible cliffs over which their paths must lie, the hostile Gauls on the precipices

which hung over their heads, and ready, on their attempt to ascend, to precipitate them into the depths below—all these were objects calculated to fill the Carthaginians with dismay. Hannibal used every art to animate their courage. Having ascertained that the mountaineers abandoned the pass at night, he, with a small party of light troops, passed rapidly through it, making himself master of the eminences on which the Gauls had been posted during the previous day. At early dawn the army commenced its ascent. The Gauls, perceiving it, hastened to their usual post but, to their surprise, beheld it in the possession of their enemy. The mountaineers now pressed into the defile by various circuitous routes, spreading terror and confusion in the army, until Hannibal was compelled to leave the eminence in order to disperse them.

16. The army at length gained the first pass; but they met new difficulties, sometimes falling into ambush through the treachery of guides, being led through bewildering tracks and over wrong roads, now intercepted by large bodies of the hostile Gauls in battle array, then shuddering as tremendous rocks were rolled from the precipices above, crushing in their onward course both man and horse. But Hannibal pursued his way until, on the ninth day, he completed his ascent. Snow now fell upon the mountains and increased the dangers of the way. The army, dejected and dispirited, hopeless of any termination of their toils, were sinking into utter despondency, when Hannibal led them to a projecting eminence and ordered them to halt. Here they looked down and beheld the valley of the Po, stretching out before them in all its beauty and luxuriance. Hannibal lost 30,000 men, and employed fifteen days in the passage of the Alps; and it was five months from the time of his leaving New Carthage before he arrived in Italy.

B. C. 218.

17. Scipio had returned from the Rhone and encamped with his legions at the Tici'nus. Here Hannibal attacked and vanquished him. In the heat of the battle the consul was wounded, and would have been killed, but his son, a youth of seventeen, sprang forward and saved his life. That youth it was who, sixteen years afterwards, conquered Hannibal at Zama. The desertion of a large body of Gauls from the Romans was the consequence of this defeat. Scipio, apprehending a general revolt, removed his camp to the river Tre'bia. Sempronius had now joined his colleague, and the two consuls, with the whole strength

B. C. 218.

of the Roman army, were ready to oppose the future progress of the Carthaginians. Another battle was fought at Trebia, where the fortune of Carthage again triumphed. When the news of a second defeat of a consular army was brought to Rome, the whole city was in consternation, but no sound of submission was heard.

18. The passage of the Carthaginians over the Ap'ennines proved nearly as destructive as that over the Alps. Yet early in the spring Hannibal was again prepared for battle. He drew the consul Flaminius into an ambuscade near lake Thrasyme'nus, and a dreadful conflict ensued. The Romans, surrounded by woods and morasses, and pressed on all sides by their enemy, fought with desperation. An earthquake, which overthrew many of the cities of Italy and turned rivers out of their courses, passed unnoticed by the furious combatants. The genius of Hannibal again prevailed.

B. C. 217.

19. The Romans now felt the terrors which they had so often excited. The appointment of a dictator was regarded as almost their only hope. The prudent Fa'bius Max'imus, with whom the American Washington has been compared, was elected to the office. He first paid solemn attention to religious rites. He next ordered the inhabitants dwelling in insecure towns to remove to places of greater safety; and those of the country through which Hannibal must pass, to leave their homes, having first burned their houses and destroyed whatever could afford subsistence. He avoided a battle, hovering near the enemy, checking their depredations, and destroying their supplies. Hannibal, finding his measures to draw Fabius into an engagement ineffectual, wreaked his sworn vengeance upon Rome by laying waste her fairest possessions. When the Roman army beheld, from the tops of the mountains, the beautiful vale of Campa'nia wasted by fire, its elegant villas smoking in ruins, and desolation spreading on every side, distrust of the motives and policy of their commander—which had before lurked in their hearts—broke forth into open murmurs.

B. C. 216.

20. While these events passed in Italy the Romans under Cne'ius Scipio obtained a victory over the Carthaginian fleet near the mouth of the I'berus, after which several of the nations adjacent to that river submitted to them. Although Fabius had pursued such measures as had preserved the Roman army entire, yet cabals were formed against him, and he was accused of wanting energy. The sole authority was taken from him; yet his counsels so far

prevailed that for two years Hannibal was not able to bring the Roman army to a general battle. When, however, Cai'us Teren'tius Var'ro attained the consulship, a different course was pursued. Hannibal drew him into an engagement at Can'næ. There the flower of the Roman youth fell, upon the most disastrous battlefield of Italy. Hannibal, instead of proceeding directly to Rome, sought first to reduce Lower Italy. The most powerful of its nations submitted to his arms or sought his alliance. He established his quarters at Cap'ua, and the luxurious habits and effeminate manners which his soldiers there acquired are assigned as the prime cause of his subsequent decline. Envy and jealousy had also arisen against him at home, and the recruits which were expected from Carthage were withheld.

B. C. 216.

21. In expectation of aid from Philip V of Macedonia, with whom he had formed a treaty, and of succor from Spain under the command of his brother Has'drubal, Hannibal now acted merely on the defensive. The policy of Rome furnished Philip with employment by stirring up enemies against him in his own country. In the meantime the Romans were regaining their strength; new legions were formed, and the spirits of the nation revived. Capua was at length taken from Hannibal; and though he had marched boldly to Rome, yet, when he learned that while he was encamped before one of its gates his presence had inspired so little terror that recruits for the army in Spain had passed out of another, he retired in chagrin. Hasdrubal,[1] his brother, having effected the passage of the Alps and arrived in the north of Italy, was met, defeated by the Roman armies, and slain. His severed head was thrown into the camp of Hannibal, who exclaimed in agony, "It is done; I have lost all my good fortune, and Carthage all her hopes."

B. C. 207.

22. Meanwhile the younger Scipio, by the terror of his arms, had reëstablished the Roman power over the territories of Spain, and by his engaging virtues had won the hearts of the people. The Celtibe'rians, a warlike people, were gained by his magnanimity in releasing from capture a beautiful princess betrothed to their leader. So great was his renown that after his return to Italy he was elected consul, though under the age prescribed; and having Sicily assigned as his province, he had the power granted him of

[1] There were four Carthaginian generals by this name. One was the brother-in-law, and one the brother of Hannibal.

carrying the war into Africa at his pleasure. He accordingly invaded Africa, where his success compelled the Carthaginians to recall their forces from Italy.

23. The grief of Hannibal was extreme when he received the mandate to return. On his arrival at Carthage he took the command of the army, and advanced five days into the country, where he encamped at Za'ma. A battle ensued in which, though the valor of the Carthaginians sustained their reputation, the Romans obtained a complete victory. Scipio advanced through Carthage, but at Tunis he was met by ambassadors. The terms imposed by the conqueror, though severe, were accepted by the disheartened Senate of Carthage. The Carthaginians agreed to relinquish their possessions in Spain, and thenceforth to restrict their power to Africa; to deliver up the Roman prisoners; to destroy their navy, and to pay tribute to Rome. Carthage, thus deprived of its foreign possessions and its navy, though enjoying its own constitution and the name of an independent republic, was effectually deprived of all means of thwarting the boundless ambition of Rome. Even on the side of Africa its power was soon checked. Masinis'sa, prince of Numid'ia, who had aided the Romans in the late war, was by them established in his kingdom; and as he was an ally of Rome, the Carthaginians were obliged to remain at peace with him.

B. C. 202.

QUESTIONS.—Relate some of the early incidents in the war between Rome and Samnium. Why did it prove to be unwise in the Samnites to treat their foe with indignity? What king came to assist the enemies of Rome? What battle did he gain? What followed this battle? What account can you give of Fabricius? Where did Pyrrhus next go? On his return what battle was fought? What was taken from the Sicilians?—by whom? What account can you give of the elder Dionysius? What two remarkable persons overthrew at different times the younger Dionysius? Give some future account of the history of Sicily. How did the first Punic war begin? What was the course of Hiero? What was the condition of Carthage? What advantages had the Romans? How did they proceed in procuring a fleet? What success had they? What naval battle occurred? Give an account of Regulus. Who was Xanthippus? What victory was obtained? What great advantage did this victory give to the Romans? On what condition did the Carthaginians make peace? On what occasion did the Romans deprive Carthage of Sardinia? What conquests did the Carthaginians make in Spain? What treaty was forced upon them? What did Hamilcar do in regard to his son? What city was built by the Carthaginians? What righteous enterprise was undertaken by the Romans? What did they

gain?—what did the Grecian cities? Give an account of the war with the Gauls. What did Hannibal do on obtaining command in Spain? What was done in Rome when this was known? What was Hannibal determined to do? What were his previous measures? How did Hannibal succeed in passing through Transalpine Gaul? What happened at the Rhone? What account can you give of the Roman consuls? What did Hannibal do to avoid a battle? What difficulties presented themselves when the army arrived at the foot of the Alps? How did Hannibal gain the first pass? After this was gained, what next occurred? How long was Hannibal in crossing the Alps, and what number did he lose? Give an account of Hannibal's first victory in Italy—give an account of his second—of his third. What natural phenomenon occurred during this battle? What can you say of Rome at this time?—what of Fabius Maximus? What policy did he pursue? What victory did Cneius Scipio gain? What was done with respect to Fabius Maximus? Describe the battle of Cannæ. Did Hannibal follow up his victory by proceeding to Rome? What course did he take? From what quarters did Hannibal expect aid? What were his reasons for not accepting it? By whom, and with what result, was the battle of Metaurus? Give an account of the Younger Scipio. Why was Hannibal recalled? Give an account of the closing battle of the war. What were the conditions of peace? What was now the situation of Carthage?

IV. The Progress of the Roman Power.

1. The Romans had drawn the Æto'lians, and subsequently several other Grecian states, into a league of alliance. Some of the Grecian cities were dissatisfied with the terms of the peace with Philip of Macedon, which followed the "Social War." The Romans were hostile to Philip on account of his treaty with Hannibal, and they sent to Greece an army commanded by the consul Acil'ius.

2. Anti'ochus the Great was on the throne of Syria. To him Hannibal, exiled from his ungrateful country, fled. He pointed out the grasping ambition of Rome, which he invited Antiochus to oppose by carrying a war into Italy, and offered to command an advance army until the monarch could arrive. The Carthaginians had the meanness to inform the Romans of the movements of Hannibal. Fortunately for Rome, Antiochus did not take his advice, but himself marched an army into Thessaly, took several cities, and proceeded to the pass of Thermop'ylæ, where he was met and defeated by the Roman army under Acilius. He escaped with a very few of his troops to Chal'cis, from whence he returned to Asia. The cities and fortresses of which he had obtained possession were surrendered to the Romans.

B. C. 192.

3. The next consul, Lu'cius Scip'io, having carried his arms into Asia, fought and conquered Antiochus. He now sued for peace, which he obtained only by resigning his claims in Europe, by the cession of all Lesser Asia, as far as Mount Tau'rus, and by the surrender of half his ships. With a show of magnanimity the Romans freed the Greek cities of Asia Minor, dividing the remainder of the conquered lands between their allies. But their moderation was only in appearance. In reality they now held sway from the Atlantic to the Euphrates. After the peace with Antiochus, the persecuted Hannibal fled to Pru'sias, king of Bithyn'ia. The Romans demanded him; and he whose great but misguided talents had been employed for the destruction of his fellow-beings, now, far from home and friends, committed suicide. The Romans did not pursue the contest in Greece with their usual vigor till at length Paul'us Æmil'ius, being elected consul, obtained a decisive victory over Perseus, king of Macedonia. Perseus fled, was pursued and taken and with his family was carried captive to Rome. *Macedonia* (Macedon) *was now a Roman province.*

B. C. 190.

B. C. 168.

4. A "triumph" was now granted by the Roman senate to the conqueror. History gives no account of any exhibition of human vanity equal to the *triumphs* of the victorious generals of Rome. On this occasion three days were consumed in gorgeous processions, in which the spoils of the vanquished were paraded through the streets, with splendid military show and martial music. Last came Pau'lus Æmil'ius in his pompous chariot, blazing with gold and purple. Behind the triumphal car of the victor, on foot and clothed in black, followed the conquered king with his little children, who held forth their hands and implored the pity of the spectators. This, says Plutarch, the children of Perseus had been taught to do, for they were too young to feel their degradation. When Perseus begged of his conqueror to be spared this degrading exhibition, Æmilius replied by hinting to him that he might spare himself by committing suicide. Paulus Æmilius was regarded as a man of moderation, but his was a cruel age. The miserable Perseus ended his days in a Roman prison.

B. C. 165.

5. Anti'ochus Epiph'anes, now king of Syria, was successfully engaged in a war with Egypt, whose kings, Ptolemy Philome'ter and Ptolemy Phys'con, requested the interference of the Roman Senate. They sent ambassadors requiring

B. C. 166.

of the Syrian prince to restore the places which he had taken from the Egyptians. Such was the terror of the Roman name that he felt himself obliged to submit to the imperious mandate.

6. Fifty years having elapsed since the close of the second Punic war, the industrious Carthaginians had repaired their ruined city, so that it began to exhibit traces of its former splendor. Ca'to the censor, an austere man now in his dotage, having occasion to visit Carthage, and not receiving all the attention to which he thought himself entitled, gave to the Senate on his return such accounts of its growing power that he awakened their jealousy. He ended all his speeches, no matter on what subject, by saying, "And in my opinion Carthage must be destroyed." Pretexts for a *Third Punic War* were soon found in a dispute which arose between a Roman ally, Masinis'sa, king of Numid'ia, and the Carthaginians. While the Senate was deliberating on the expediency of immediate war, deputies were received from Utica, the second city of Africa, in the neighborhood of Carthage, surrendering their city to the Roman power.

B. C. 149.

7. Having now a convenient depot, the Senate no longer hesitated to send a fleet to Africa, although the Carthaginian ambassadors at Rome made offers of satisfaction and submission. No sooner was it known at Carthage that the Roman fleet had arrived at Utica than ambassadors also were despatched thither, to make all necessary concessions to obtain peace. The Romans demanded that the munitions of war should be conveyed from Carthage to the Roman camp. The Carthaginians gave them up; but the means of defense were no sooner removed from their city, than their ambassadors were informed that it was the will of the Roman Senate that Carthage should be destroyed, and all the citizens were commanded to depart. With astonishment and grief the ambassadors supplicated mercy. They prevailed only so far as to obtain permission to send another embassy to Rome. The deputies went and returned, and confirmed the barbarous decree.

8. The citizens, in despair, resolved to defend themselves to the last extremity. The delay of the Roman consuls, who apprehended no resistance from a disarmed city, afforded the Carthaginians an opportunity to prepare for the siege. The temples, palaces, and markets were converted into arsenals, where men and women worked day and night in the manufacture of arms. But

these efforts only delayed a fate which the unhappy people could not avert. After a bravely sustained siege of three years, Carthage capitulated, with no other condition than that the lives of those who were willing to leave the citadel should be spared. *Carthage, which had existed for seven centuries, and which at the commencement of the war contained 700,000 inhabitants, was now reduced to ashes.*

B. C. 146.

QUESTIONS.—What measures were the Romans taking in order to subjugate Greece? To what was Antiochus of Syria advised? How was Hannibal treated by his country? What was done by Antiochus? Where was he defeated? What did he then? Give an account of his battle at Thermop'ylæ. What was its consequence on the Syrian power? What was now the extent of the Roman authority? What was the fate of Hannibal? What was the course pursued by Perseus? What was its consequence? Describe the triumph of Paulus Æmilius? What was the fate of Perseus? How was the quarrel between Syria and Egypt adjusted? What was at this period the state of Carthage? What account can you give of Cato? What pretext did the Roman senate find for sending an army to Africa? How did the Romans proceed with the Carthaginians? How did the cruel conduct of the Romans affect the citizens of Carthage? Were their efforts availing? How long had Carthage continued? How many inhabitants did it contain at the commencement of the war?

V. The Civil Wars of Rome.

1. Thus by the arts or arms of Rome the last feeble glimmering of Grecian liberty had been extinguished. Carthage lay smoking in ruins. Syria had bowed in humble submission, and Spain had found her native valor unavailing. The Romans drew the wealth of these vast and remote nations into their own treasury, and from this period bribery and corruption swayed the senate at home, while extortion and oppression marked the administration of the provincial governments abroad.

2. Rome was divided into aristocratic and democratic parties, whose contests were more destructive than the ancient dissensions between the Patricians and Plebeians. The great power of the Senate had given rise to a family aristocracy, odious to the people. A law was passed called the Licin'ian, from Licinius Sto'lo, whose object was to restrict the possession of public land to five hundred acres. This for a while restrained the avarice of the wealthy, and enabled the poor to obtain farms at moderate rates. But at length

this law was disregarded, and the rich secured the public lands, which were cultivated by the slaves, of whom the Patricians possessed incredible numbers, the prisoners taken in war being often sold, or given away, as such. Thus the soldiers who were called on for military services were often left without the means of procuring a livelihood, while the rich enjoyed the fruits of all their victories and conquests.

3. An agrarian law was proposed by the tribune of the people, Tibe'rius Sempro'nius Grac'chus. He proposed to improve the conditions of the poor by a more just distribution of the public lands; and not, as some have supposed, by taking the private property of the rich and giving it to the poor. The law first proposed was mild in its character. But the enthusiasm of the populace, who began to look forward with hope, and the obstinacy of the nobles in defence of their usurped privileges, brought on violent measures. At length the Licinian law was renewed. Gracchus then made a further proposal, that the treasures of At'talus, left by will to Rome, should be divided among the people. The nobility resisted; sedition ensued, and Tiberius Gracchus and three hundred of the citizens fell victims.

B. C. 133.

4. Although the leader was destroyed, the party was by no means crushed. Tiberius had made the people feel the power of their tribunes, and they resolved to exercise and increase it. Cai'us Grac'chus, a brother of Tiberius, some years afterwards obtained the office. He proposed several laws which tended to diminish the power of the senate, while they increased that of the people. But his opponents raised a tumult, in which Caius was slain, with three thousand of his friends. Thus the aristocratic party finally triumphed over the people. They procured the repeal of the agrarian laws, confiscated the goods of Caius, and prohibited his family from wearing mourning. But the memory of the Gracchi was revered by the people, who afterwards erected statues to them in the most public part of the city.

B. C. 121.

5. Micip'sa, who had succeeded his father Masinissa on the throne of Numidia, in northern Africa, had at his death left his kingdom to his nephew Jugur'tha, conjointly with his sons Hiemp'sal and Adher'bal. Jugurtha dethroned the sons, assassinated Hiempsal, and seized the whole kingdom. Adherbal fled to the Roman Senate, and appealed to them. Had they acted promptly, they would for once have had a good cause.

B. C. 112.

But they suffered Jugurtha's arts and bribery to produce delay, and the death of Adherbal occurred. Then the Senate sent the consul Metel'lus into Africa. This brave man was bringing the war to a favorable termination when Ma'rius, a new demagogue, who by his valor and abilities had obtained the favor of the people, was appointed to the chief command. Boc'chus, king of Upper Numidia, the son-in-law of Jugurtha, privately offered to deliver him to Syl'la, who was an officer in the army of Marius. Sylla went to the camp of Bocchus, where Jugurtha was given into his hands. The ambitious Sylla had a seal made representing the exploit, and thenceforth claimed the honor of terminating the war. Thus began the quarrel between Marius and Sylla.

6. The genius of Marius procured a triumph for the Plebeians, he being the first of their number to be made consul. The Cim'bri and the Teuto'nes, northern barbarians, poured down from the north in alarming multitudes. Half a million had collected, and were moving towards Rome. Proceeding through Helvetia, they were joined by the Celtic and Helvetic tribes. They attacked Roman Gaul. Within four years three armies were sent against them, and all these were defeated. Marius was again made consul. Near Aix, in Provence (southern France), he defeated the Teutones; and near Verona, in Italy, he overthrew the Ci- Thus were already begun those barbarian incursion d the final ruin of Rome.

B. C. 102.

7. Marius, Rome from foreign foes, returned to disturb her d He obtained a sixth consulate. Metel'lus, whon in the Jugurthine war, possessed an infle it of better days. Marius hated him. A tribune of the people, he procured la an alarming degree the power of th them, and was banished, though a e and crimes of the popular pa ugh he at first encouraged then a body of soldiers to suppress ill. Hatred already existed b implacable enemy, was rap lus, whose banishment h Marius, foreseeing evil, wi agers for a while

occupied the nation, and gave the factious spirit of the citizens employment without the walls of the city.

8. The Italian allies of Rome had from time to time been flattered with the hope of obtaining citizenship until, despairing of the accomplishment of their wishes and driven by continued oppression, they formed a league, which threatened to subvert the power of Rome itself. This contest was marked by frequent and bloody battles, victory sometimes declaring in favor of the allies, sometimes for Rome. The war was terminated by concessions on the part of the Romans, the allies eventually obtaining all the privileges which they demanded.

B. C. 91.

9. Mithridates the Great, during his conquests of Asia Minor, had given indications of hostile feelings towards Rome by putting to death great numbers of the Roman citizens of Lesser Asia. The factions in Rome were still distracting the republic. During the Marsian war, in which both Marius and Sylla had been employed, Sylla had increased in popularity and Marius had declined. War with Mithridates being declared, Marius was chosen to conduct it, but as the army refused to obey him, the command was transferred to Sylla.

B. C. 88.

10. Open war between the rivals ensued. The fortune of Sylla triumphed. Marius was driven into exile, and in Campania he was seized by Sylla's emissaries and dragged [illegible] prison in Mintur'næ. A Gaul was commanded to cut off h[illegible] prison. Entering the dungeon, he met the terrible l[illegible]rd the voice of the stern man: "Darest thou kill C[illegible]. The Gaul at these words dropped his sword and [illegible]ing that he could not do the deed. Marius wa[illegible]to Africa, a price being set upon his head at [illegible]

11. Sylla departed f[illegible]is cruelties he had made himself odious [illegible]Grecian cities, with the exception of A[illegible], Mithridates, opened their gates to [illegible]ed that city and took it. He viol[illegible]de himself master of their treas[illegible] profusion among his soldier[illegible]rvice but corr[illegible]œotia, and at C[illegible]d victories over the forces o[illegible]led to sue for peace. All [illegible]ser Asia

B. C. 86.

ASIA MINOR
Greek Stadia
200 600 1000
PONTUS EUXINUS
MARE INTERNUM
THRACIA
Paphlagonia
Bithynia
Galatia
Phrygia
Cappadocia
Pisidia
Pamphylia
Lycia
Caria
Mysia
Troas
Proponti
Mare Aegaeum
Mesopotamia
Armenia
Cyprus
Byzantium
Chalcedon
Nicomedia
Nicaea
Amisus
Sinope
Trapezus
Amasea
Comana pontica
Zela
Cabira
Neocaesarea
Tavium
Pessinus
Dorylaeum
Iconium
Tyana
Nazianzus
Cocusus
Comana
Mazaca v. Caesarea
Nyssa
Tatta Palus
Ancyra
Gangra
Pompeiopolis
Sebastia
Amisus
Laodicea
Apamea
Synnada
Philadelphia
Sardis
Smyrna
Ephesus
Miletus
Halicarnassus
Cnidus
Rhodes
Patara
Xanthus
Telmissus
Myra
Phaselis
Perga
Side
Aspendus
Attalia
Seleucia
Tarsus
Adana
Mopsuestia
Anazarbus
Castabala
Issus
Amanides
Pylae Amanides
Rhosus
Thapsacus
Euphrates Fl.
Tigris Fl.
Halys Fl.
Iris Fl.
Lycus Fl.
Sangarius Fl.
Hermus Fl.
Caicus Fl.
Maeander Fl.
Cydnus Fl.
Pyramus Fl.
Sarus Fl.
Melas Fl.
Arsanias Fl.
Araxes Fl.
Phasis Fl.
Thermodon Fl.
Iris Fl.
Scamander Fl.
Simois Fl.
Granicus Fl.
Rhyndacus Fl.
Aesepus Fl.
Hermus Fl.
Caicus Fl.
Cayster Fl.
Maeander Fl.
Xanthus Fl.
Eurymedon Fl.
Calycad

were relinquished, and on these terms Mithridates was declared a friend and ally of the Romans.

12. But while Sylla was thus triumphing in the East, a revolution was effected at Rome. The consul Con'na, of the party of Marius, after the departure of Sylla, resorted to the former measures of the Marian faction, and was expelled by his colleague Octa'vius. He now raised an army, recalled Marius, defeated the army of the senate, and entered Rome triumphant. Massacres and horrors followed the entrance of the vindictive Marius. Rome, deluged with the blood of his victims, turned her eyes towards victorious Sylla. Marius awaited with appalling dread the approach of the enemy. He sickened and died, and Rome rejoiced at the event. Young Pompey, who was rising into consequence and had the command of some troops, with most of the leading citizens, declared for Sylla, who entered Rome like a conqueror. He now overcame his enemies. The Senate and people soon learned that they had only exchanged one tyrant for another one, still more bloody. He caused to be put up in public places lists of such persons as he disliked, and he offered rewards to those who would kill them. These lists of proscription were daily renewed. Whoever favored a proscribed person, although his own father or nearest relative, was himself devoted to death, while those who destroyed their friends received ample reward. The streets were filled with the dead. On one occasion seven thousand persons were assembled in a small place, and there put to the sword, while the insulted Senate, sitting near, was compelled to listen to their groans. To such degrading tyranny was Rome, the mistress of the world, compelled to submit, and thus were her cruelties to Carthage and other fallen enemies visited upon her own head.

B. C. 83.

13. Sylla had declared himself dictator, and in this capacity he modified the laws to suit his own purposes. Afterwards he voluntarily abdicated his power, and although he escaped the chastisement which he deserved from human hands, he was smitten with a most loathsome disease, of which he died. *In the wars of Marius and Sylla thirty persons of consular dignity, two hundred senators, and 150,000 Roman citizens are said to have perished.* Amidst the disorders of Rome some Thracian gladiators, headed by the gigantic Spar'tacus, ran away from the masters, and posted themselves strongly in the hills near

B. C. 78.

Capua. Slaves and the oppressed joined them till, with an army of 72,000, Spartacus for a time was the terror of Italy. Cras'sus was sent against him, and he was defeated and slain.

QUESTIONS.—What was now the extent of the Roman territories? Into what parties was Rome divided? What had given rise to family aristocracy? What was the law which Licinius Stolo procured? Did this long remain in force? How was the land of the rich cultivated? Had the Patricians many slaves? What circumstance showed that they feared the slaves? How were the common soldiers situated? What family made an effort to deliver the people from their oppression? What did T. S. Gracchus propose? How did he perish? What was afterwards done and suffered by Caius Gracchus? Who was Jugurtha? How happened the Romans to make war upon him? Give an account of the war. How did Marius obtain a triumph for the Plebeians? What incursions of barbarians occurred? What were their numbers? What was done to check them? What was done by Marius? What numbers of them were killed, and what made prisoners? What was done with prisoners? What was the conduct of Marius on his return? What was done by his rival? Relate what next happened to Marius. Give some account of the Social War. Give an account of the beginning of the Mithridatic war. What occurred to Marius? Describe the course of Sylla in Greece. What were the conditions of peace granted to Mithridates? What had happened in Rome? What did Marius on his return? Relate some of the cruelties of Sylla. What number of victims is supposed to have lost their lives in these civil wars? Give an account of the Servile war.

VI. The First Triumvirate.

1. In the East another war with Mithridates had broken out. The consul Lucul'lus had obtained the command in that quarter, and conducted the war with such vigor and ability that in the second year he compelled Mithridates to fly to his son-in-law Tigra'nes, king of Arme'nia. Tigranes, although he had before neglected to afford him any aid, now refused to deliver him up. Lucullus, therefore, carried the war into Armenia. The army of Lucullus obtained victories over the allied forces of these kings; but a mutiny among the Roman soldiers embarrassed his movements, and enabled Mithridates to recover his strength.

2. Pompey had been successful in the war in Spain; he had conquered the pirates of Cilic'ia and Isau'ria, and now was gratified by being sent, with an army of 30,000, to supersede Lucullus, and thus to have the glory of being opposed to Mithridates, the most powerful and able general with whom the Romans had con-

tended since the days of Hannibal. Pompey departed from Pontus into Armenia, determined to reduce that province or to force Mithridates to battle, in order to relieve it. Mithridates followed with his army. Pompey, failing to draw him into an engagement, besieged him in his camp for fifty days. Mithridates, reduced to distress, at dead of night attacked the Roman guards, broke through their entrenchments, and gained the open country. Pompey pursued; and finding unguarded passes, sent detachments, which secretly gained commanding positions in the rear of the Pontians. He then surprised their camp at night. Thus surrounded, they suffered a total defeat.

B. C. 66.

3. Pompey made Tigranes a Roman ally; in other words, a Roman subject. He then went northward in pursuit of Mithridates. After two years of war with the Scythians and of hardship to his troops, Pompey retraced his course to Pontus, and reduced those places which remained faithful to the absent monarch. After these victories Pompey received the submission of twelve kings. He then carried his arms into Syria, conquered Judæa, and penetrated to Arabia.

B. C. 64-63.

4. After Pompey's departure, Mithridates issued from his concealment, and appearing in Pontus at the head of an army, made himself master of several important places. But his officers mutinied, and in vain he asked the aid of the Scythians. His son Pharna'ces, availing himself of the disaffection of the army, proclaimed himself king. Mithridates, in despair, committeed suicide. Pompey, after declaring Pharnaces an ally to the Romans, returned to Italy. Rome rejoiced in his success, and on the proposal of Cic'ero, the greatest of Roman orators, twelve days were set apart for thanksgiving to the gods.

5. On his arrival in Italy Pompey disbanded his army, to the great joy of the Senate, who feared that he would retain it, and, after the examples of Marius and Sylla, made himself absolute in power. Rome was, however, unquiet. Cat'iline and his associates had formed a horrible conspiracy. Their intention was to extirpate the Roman Senate, plunder the treasury, and set Rome on fire. Through the eloquence and patriotism of Cicero, thence called the "father of his country," aided by the honest and philosophical Ca'to, the dreadful plot was detected and the conspirators were punished.

B. C. 64.

6. But the master spirit of the times was Julius Cæsar, who

had just returned from a successful war in Spain. Concealing his boundless ambition, he was now at Rome, paying court to the ladies, and acting the intriguing demagogue. Cras'sus, by assuming popular manners, by increasing his great wealth, and by constantly making himself useful by his money to those who needed his aid, had, with far inferior talents, acquired power and influence in Rome equal to those of either Cæsar or Pompey. Crassus and Pompey were at variance. Cæsar artfully reconciled them, and the three formed a union, *dividing among themselves, under the name of the Triumvirate,*[1] *the supreme power of the commonwealth.* Cæsar, at his desire, was appointed to undertake an expedition against the Gauls. He believed that in the five years allotted to him he would be able to form and discipline an army which would put within his reach the absolute power at which he aimed. The succeeding year Crassus was to govern Asia, while Pompey remained at Rome at the head of the affairs of Italy, Africa, and Spain.

B. C. 60.

7. A treaty with Par'thia had been entered into by Lucullus, and renewed by Pompey, the terms of which that nation had faithfully kept. But Crassus, wishing to increase his wealth and to equal the military fame of his rivals, undertook against the Parthians an unprovoked and unrighteous war. At the head of the Roman legions he passed through Syria and Judæa, plundered the temple at Jerusalem, crossed the Euphrates, and reduced many towns of Mesopotamia. The Parthians rose in arms; and while Crassus with his army was in winter quarters, they retook the places which he had conquered. When he recommenced his march they provided him with an artful adviser in Ariam'nes, a wily Arabian chief, to whom Crassus gave ear. Deaf to the remonstrances of Caius Cas'sius, an able general and of other officers and friends, who knew the Parthian mode of warfare, Crassus insisted in keeping the open plains of Mesopotamia. The Romans fought bravely, but in vain; whether they were advancing, or retreating, the discharge of the Parthian arrows was equally effective. The army of Crassus, surrounded on all sides, was reduced to the greatest extremity; a large division was totally defeated, and his son, who commanded it, was slain.

B. C. 54.

B. C. 54.

[1] The word means a political combination of three men, and was used much as we use the word *ring* to-day, in a political sense.

8. Crassus effected a retreat, and threw himself into Char'ræ. Thither he was pursued by Sure'na, the Parthian general, and he determined to leave the city. His design was discovered by Surena, and again a guide was suborned, who led the Roman into marshes, where he was overtaken and finally slain. Of all his army, only 500 horse, under the command of Crassus, escaped.

B. C. 53.

9. Cæsar had at first received the government of Gaul for five years; but at their expiration he was involved in war with the barbarians, and five years were added to the time. During this period his daring achievements, his adventurous spirit, his personal toils and exposures, exhibited military talents equal, if not superior, to those of Alexander and of Hannibal. To those he added, what neither of them possessed, the polish of the finished scholar. The commanding powers of language were his, whether he chose to exert them in speaking or writing. He had in his youth pursued his education in Greece, whither Cicero, Cato, and other eminent orators at this golden period of Roman eloquence, resorted for instruction; the Romans thus ceding the nobler palm of the arts of peace to the nation whom they had mastered in war.

B. C. 55.

10. The expeditions of Cæsar brought to the notice of the Romans places which they had not before known. Thus they connect with him even us, the Anglo-Americans. By Julius Cæsar the Romans were first led to Britain. Cæsar twice invaded Britain. In his sanguinary course he enlarged the bounds of the Roman empire in Gaul, and found tribes of new and singular appearance. He also invaded Germany, and fought bloody battles with its wandering natives.

QUESTIONS.—How did Lucullus conduct the second Mithridatic war? What is said of Pompey?—what of Mithridates? Give an account of the movements of the contending parties. What was done by Pompey in respect to Tigranes? How did he next extend the Roman power? Give an account of the third Mithridatic war. What did Pharnaces become? What was done in Rome on Pompey's return? How did Pompey recommend himself to the Roman Senate? Give an account of the horrible conspiracy which had been formed. To whom was its detection and punishment owing? Who was, however, the master spirit? What appearance did he now put on? How did Crassus become powerful? Who and what was the first triumvirate? How did the three divide the Roman power between them? What right had the Romans to attack the Parthians? What sacri-

lege was committed by Crassus? Relate the history of his march, and observe whether he prospered? How did Crassus finally meet his doom? What did Cæsar do at this time? How did Cæsar excel Alexander and Hannibal? Where did he go for his education? In what respects were the Romans inferior to the Greeks? What are you told of Cæsar's invasion of Britain?—of Germany?

VII. The Second Triumvirate.

1. On the death of Crassus the first Triumvirate was dissolved, and Pompey and Cæsar were left to contend for the supremacy. Julia, the amiable daughter of Cæsar, whom he had given in marriage to Pompey, had proved a bond of union between these two ambitious spirits; but she was now dead, and Pompey married Corne'lia[1] of the family of Scipios, and the widow of the son of Crassus. Animosities between them, fatal to the peace of Rome, were now beginning to appear. Cicero vainly attempted to reconcile them. Pompey enlisted the Senate and the people on his side. Cæsar, on the other hand, was the idol of his veteran army.

2. Pompey obtained a decree from the Senate commanding Cæsar to disband his troops; and Mark An'tony, a tribune, fled to Cæsar's camp at Raven'na with the news. To obey the mandate would be to put himself in the power of his rival. To advance with his army, and pass the river Ru'bicon, the boundary of his province, would be setting at defiance the power of the Senate. Taking 6,000 soldiers, Cæsar advanced with an agitated mind, paused all night, riding to and fro on the brink of the interdicted stream; then at dawn he dashed forward, and as he passed, he exclaimed, "the die is cast." The celerity of his movements surprised his enemies. Pompey, not being in force to meet him, fled from Rome, first to Cap'ua and afterwards to Brundu'sium. Cæsar,

B. C. 49.

B. C. 49.

[1] Cornelia was beautiful, amiable and well versed in polite literature. She played the lute, and was also acquainted with geometry and philosophy. The condition of women among the ancients was, however, degrading. Their fathers or brothers, without consulting their affections, gave them in marriage as it suited their own ambitious purposes. When Cæsar wished for a political connection with Pompey, Julia, who was on the eve of marriage to another, must be given to him. When Sylla wished for the same connection, he took his stepdaughter Emilia from her husband, and obliged the young Pompey to divorce his first wife, Anstitia, and marry her. Men divorced their wives at pleasure. Even Cicero, in his old age, divorced Terentia, the mother of Tullia, for whose death he mourned so immoderately, and married a young heiress, who was his ward. Men as fathers have been more generally just to women than as husbands.

by the departure of Pompey, was left in possession of Italy, and soon entered Rome. Collecting the members of the Senate, he attempted to justify his conduct, and made proposals of peace, while at the same time he continued his preparations for war. To facilitate these, he entered the treasury and took an immense sum, telling the tribune who opposed him that "arms and laws do not flourish together."

3. Appointing lieutenants over the different provinces, with legions at their command, and leaving Mark Antony commander-in-chief in Italy, he proceeded in person to reduce Spain, where the army was in the interest of Pompey. Having with great hazard effected this, he returned to Rome, leaving one of his lieutenants to command in Spain. The patriotic citizens of Rome knew not how to act. Cicero said, "Cæsar is the abler man, but Pompey has the better cause." Believing this, he and most of the senators, magistrates, and distinguished citizens, left Rome to follow the fortunes of Pompey.

4. Cæsar assembled his friends and the citizens which remained; and the prætor Lep'idus nominated him dictator. Cæsar held the office but eleven days, during which he made some improvements in the government. He filled the vacant offices with his friends. He had himself and one of his partisans appointed consuls. He next invested Pompey's forces in Brundu'sium; but Pompey, escaping the snare, crossed the Adriatic into Greece. Cæsar embarked from Brundusium with a part of his army, leaving the remainder under Antony to follow; but their delay, and the danger of their being intercepted by Pompey's fleet, induced Antony to make overtures for peace. They were rejected. Cæsar, impatient to learn the cause of Antony's delay, attempted to cross the strait in a fishing boat, telling the master, affrighted by a storm, "Fear not, thou carriest Cæsar and his fortunes." Mark Antony having arrived with the remainder of his troops, Cæsar besieged his rival in camp at Dyrrha'chium. But Pompey forced him from his position with loss; and then, as Cæsar retreated, he followed him into Macedonia.

5. Pompey's army far exceeded Cæsar's in number; and in his camp were almost all the friends of Roman liberty—Cicero, Cato, and the patriotic Brutus. The two armies were drawn up on the memorable plain of Pharsa'lia. They who had sat together in council, and shared the same

B. C. 48.

social repast, now met in unholy strife. Pompey fought his country's children, not her foes, and Cæsar was victorious. As soon as Pompey perceived that his cavalry were defeated, he retired to his camp in despair, and sat down. When the whole army was routed, and he was informed that Cæsar was approaching to storm the intrenchments, he exclaimed, "In my camp, too!" and laying aside the insignia of office, he prepared for flight.

6. Pompey, now a wretched fugitive, passed by Laris'sa, and in the vale of Tempe he was glad to rest his wearied limbs in a fisherman's hut. In the morning he embarked on the Peneus in a small boat; but coming up with a ship of burden commanded by a Roman, he was welcomed and carried to Mitylene, where the affectionate Cornelia, expecting to see her husband as the master of the world, was told that if she wished to see Pompey with one ship, and that not his own, she must hasten. When she approached he ran and caught her in his arms, as she was falling in a fainting fit. Yet it was her husband's fate, and not her own, that affected her; and she generously sought to blame herself for his ill-fortune.

7. With one small galley they embarked for Egypt, to seek the protection of Ptolemy. On their arrival at Alexandria the base counselors of the young king advised him to assassinate Pompey, in order to obtain the favor of Cæsar. Accordingly, a boat was sent off to the galley, as if to take him to the city. Cornelia, looking after him as he moved from her, saw the assassin stab him through the body; and her shriek of agony was heard upon the shore. Cæsar pursued Pompey to Egypt; but when his head was presented to him he turned away with abhorrence, wept at the fate of his former friend, and caused his murderers to be punished.

8. The crown of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy, the acknowledged king, and Cleopatra, his sister. The claims of Ptolemy had been upheld by the Roman Senate, and Cleopatra had been banished. To lay her cause before Cæsar, she hastened to Alexandria. Cæsar was charmed as by an enchantress; and he summoned Ptolemy to appear before him. At the instigation of his minister, Ptolemy disregarded the summons, and despatched an army of 20,000 men to besiege Cæsar in Alexandria. Cæsar, attended by only 4,000 troops, was in imminent danger. At

length reinforcements arrived, with which he attacked and carried the camp of Ptolemy, who, in attempting to escape, was drowned. Cæsar settled the crown on Cleopatra.

9. The war was closed, but the conqueror lingered. At length he was aroused by intelligence of the revolt and conquests of Pharna'ces, the son of Mithrida'tes. According to his own account, he "came, saw, conquered"; and having appointed Mithridates of Per'gamus, who had succored him in his distress at Alexandria, to be the successor of Pharnaces, he embarked for Italy. He found, on his arrival at Rome, that during his absence he had been created dictator for one year, consul for five years, and tribune of the people for life.

B. C. 47.

10. The remaining partisans of Pompey, after their defeat at Pharsalia, passed over to Africa, under Metel'lus Scip'io, Ca'to, and Ju'ba, the son of Hiempsal, who was dutiful to the last to the Senate of Rome; the only independent members of that once august body now assembled in Utica, where Cato presided. Cæsar sought them and defeated in battle their military force. Juba and one of his generals killed each other in despair. Scipio, who commanded the army, was slain; and Cato, the most virtuous and patriotic of the Romans, seeing that all hope was lost, having read and commented on Plato's work on the immortality of the soul, with philosophic composure committed suicide. Cæsar, on his return to Rome from this expedition, was honored with a splendid triumph, which lasted four days; the people, with base flattery, hailing him as the father of his country.

B. C. 46.

11. The sons of Pompey, yet unsubdued, held Spain, and were in a condition for war. Cæsar went thither, conquered, and returned. He had now triumphed over all his enemies, and was supreme in Rome. His sway, unlike that of Marius and Sylla, was mild and equitable—liberal to his friends, kind and forgiving to his enemies. He made salutary laws. With the aid of learned men he reformed the calendar, and thus showed the advantages of learning in conditions of power. He caused Carthage and Corinth to be rebuilt, and sent out Roman colonies to repeople them. He planned a war with Parthia, in order to extend the empire and to avenge the death of Crassus.

12. Had Cæsar been ambitious only, and not vain; had he been content with the substance of power, without the childish

desire of its show, he might probably have lived and been a blessing to his country. The constitution had long been subverted by a degenerate people. Rome without republican virtues could not be a republic. It remained only to choose her master; and doubtless Cæsar was the fittest man. But Cæsar wished to be called king, and to wear the insignia of royalty, which was galling to the pride of the Romans; and when Mark Antony and others crowned his statue and spoke of his coronation, murmurs arose. The thoughtful Cassius, the envious Cinna, and others, were stirring up a hatred against him which aimed at his life; and at length they gained the man who, since Cato, had more devotion to his country than any other Roman. This was Mar'cus Bru'tus, who had fought against Cæsar at Pharsalia, and had been pardoned by him, loaded with favors, and adopted as a son. Loving Cæsar much, he yet loved Rome more; and from a misguided patriotism he joined the conspiracy, in which sixty senators were engaged.

B. C. 45.

13. The Ides of March was the day appointed for the execution of the murderous deed. The night preceding, Calpur'nia, the wife of Cæsar, was warned in a dream, and would vain have persuaded him not to go to the Senate that day. Cæsar, as he passed a soothsayer who had foretold that the Ides of March would be fatal to him, said triumphantly, "The Ides of March have come." "But not gone," was the reply. On account of the alarm which Calpurnia's dream had given him, he offered sacrifices before going to the Capitol. The omens were inauspicious, and he thought to adjourn the Senate; but one of the conspirators asked if he would bid them go and come again when Calpurnia had better dreams. He then took his accustomed seat. A friend gave him a paper, containing an account of the conspiracy, desiring him to read it instantly. As Cæsar held it in his hand, the conspirators pressed around him with petitions. At length Cinna gave the signal by pulling his robe. At the moment all drew their swords and fell upon him. He defended himself at first; but seeing Brutus about to strike, he exclaimed, "And you, too, Brutus!" Then wrapping his mantle about his head he fell, pierced with many wounds.

B. C. 44.

Thus died, in the 56th year of his age, a man who, it is said, *conquered 300 nations, took 800 cities, and in different battles*

defeated 3,000,000 of men, of whom 1,000,000 were killed in fight. Great as he was, he was a man of blood, and in blood he fell.

QUESTIONS.—How was the first triumvirate dissolved? Whom had Pompey on his side?—whom had Cæsar? What decree did the senate pass? How did Cæsar hear of it? Give the history of Cæsar's movements. What were Cæsar's next measures? What course did the most patriotic Romans now take? Where did they go, beginning with Pompey? What were Cæsar's measures? What was done at Brundusium?—what at Dyrrhachium? Describe the battle of Pharsalia? What was the loss on the side of the vanquished? What was the course of Pompey after this battle? What occurred after he reached the shores of Egypt? Who was Cleopatra? What course did Cæsar take to uphold her claim? Give an account of his expedition to Asia. What honors awaited him at Rome? Who were assembled in Utica? What was the fate of Juba?—of Cato? Describe the conduct of Cæsar as supreme in power. What error as a politician did Cæsar commit? If our citizens and rulers cease to have republican virtues, what do you suppose will be the fate of our republic? Describe the conspiracy which was now formed. Give an account of Cæsar's death. How many nations had he conquered?—cities? How many men were defeated, and how many slain in his wars?

VIII. The End of the Roman Republic.

1. The conspirators retired first to the Capitol; but on the following day they appeared in public and addressed the people, who seemed to listen with composure. The Senate passed a decree which, though it confirmed the acts of Cæsar's dictatorship, bestowed such offices on the conspirators as might be regarded as an approval of their deed. But with misjudging moderation they permitted Mark Antony, an eloquent man whose dangerous character was a singular compound of political design and ardent passion, to bring forward the dead body of Cæsar for a public funeral.

Antony touched the national pride of the Romans by enumerating Cæsar's achievements, and their sensibilities by declaring Cæsar's acts of kindness. With the genuine tears of bereaved affection he showed them "sweet Cæsar's wounds;" and with the art of a politician read them his will, wherein he manifested his love to the Roman people by bequeathing them money. The deep feelings of sorrow thus excited by the orator were artfully turned to rage against those who wrought his

B. C. 44.

death. The people arose in their madness; and the conspirators, to save their lives, fled from Rome. Brutus and Cassius went to Athens, where the Greeks, honoring them for their love of liberty, received them cordially; and they applied themselves for a time to the study of philosophy. Brutus had already imbibed from Cato the sublime devotion to virtue which characterized the Sto'ics.

2. Antony had brought the Senate into many of his measures. A new aspirant now appeared in Octa'vius, grand-nephew of Julius Cæsar, whom the latter had adopted as his son, giving him the name of Cæsar, and making him his heir. He had been pursuing his studies in Greece; but on hearing of his uncle's death he posted to Rome. Antony, though at the head of affairs, had neglected to pursue the conspirators. He now withheld from Octavius the fortune bequeathed him by his uncle, that he might not have the means of acquiring popularity. Octavius, seeing his design, secured the favor of the people by selling his patrimonial estate to pay Cæsar's legacy. Cicero, regarding him as less dangerous than Antony, aided him by his great influence.

3. The Senate sent to Antony, who was now in Gaul at the head of an army, certain orders, which he thought proper to disregard; whereupon they dispatched Octavius, with a force to reduce him to submission. An engagement took place in Cisalpine Gaul, in which Octavius was successful. Lep'idus, an unprincipled man, was in command of an army in Farther Gaul. To his camp Antony fled, but was ill received by the general. Feeling his life in danger, he appealed to the army. He was manly and graceful in person, persuasive in speech and manners, the friend of Julius Cæsar, and he appeared among the soldiers in distress. They espoused his cause, and Lepidus now felt that Antony had become his master.

4. Octavius had the command of the forces of the Senate, but he had suspicions of the attachment of that body to himself, and thought that the destruction of Antony would be the prelude to his own. When on his making application for the consulship his suit was rejected, he no longer hesitated upon his course, but

B. C. 43. privately sent to Antony and Lepidus, proposing terms of reconciliation. They gladly embracing his proposals, the three met on a little island in the Rhine where, uniting their military force, they formed the *second triumvirate.*

5. The first business of this iniquitous league was to make a proscriptive list, in which each gave up many friends, in order that

the others might agree to the destruction of his enemies. This bloody catalogue contained the names of three hundred senators and two hundred knights. Octavius gave up to the hatred of Antony the virtuous Cicero, the friend of his country and the pride of Roman eloquence. Cicero was pursued and murdered. The estates of the proscribed were seized and given to their murderers.

6. The Triumviri prepared for war with Brutus and Cassius, who by this time had collected a considerable force. Brutus had traveled into Asia and there made friends. Arsa'ces of Parthia gave him aid. Brutus, troubled in mind, one night while in Asia, saw, or seemed to see, a terrible spectre, who said, "I will meet thee again at Philippi." Said Brutus, "I will meet thee there." The Roman students at Athens embraced his cause; the friends of the commonwealth and the partisans of the sons of Pompey, who were still scattered in various parts of the provinces, flocked to his standard. The hostile armies met at Philippi in Macedonia; and again the thousands of Rome stood arrayed against each other. The battle was fought bravely. While Brutus proved victorious over Octavius, Antony completely routed the troops of Cassius, who, ignorant of the success of his colleague, fell upon his sword. Brutus collected the forces of Cassius, and after twenty days yielded to the importunity of his troops and, hazarding another battle, was totally defeated. Witnessing the irreparable loss of his army, and determining not to survive the liberty of his country, he also committed suicide.

B. C. 42.

7. On the death of Brutus the party of the conspirators was no longer formidable, and the Roman empire was completely subjected to the Triumviri. Octavius returned to Italy, where Lepidus still remained. Antony went into Asia, where he received the homage of its various kings, collected the revenues, and regulated the affairs of provinces and tributary nations, as his caprice might dictate. At Tar'sus, for some alleged offense, he summoned to appear before him the fascinating queen of Egypt. Knowing that Antony affected at times to personify Bacchus, god of wine, Cleopatra came to him in the character of Venus, sailing up the river Cyd'nus, in a galley decorated in the perfection of art and elegance. Antony, at her invitation, came to her galley, and was charmed to his ruin. He accompanied her on her return to Alexandria, where, sunk in effeminacy, he forgot public affairs.

B. C. 41.

8. Octavius assiduously employed himself in attaching the veteran troops to his person, and in bringing the whole nation to regard him as its head. Italy was, however, the scene of want and misery. Sex'tus Pompey, who had made himself master of Sicily, infested the sea with his fleet, and prevented the importation of grain, while multitudes of women and children, deprived of their lands, crowded the temples and the streets. Multitudes of husbandmen and shepherds flocked to Rome, to excite the compassion of the conqueror. Among the suppliants, the poet Vergil alone found favor, and was permitted to retain his patrimonial estate at Man'tua.

9. Antony, aroused by the representations of his friends, tore himself from Egypt and returned to Italy. Octavius met him, and by mediation of friends and from common policy they became reconciled. In making their bargain, the noble Octavia, the sister of Octavius, was given to be the wife of the lover of Cleopatra; and another division in the empire was made. Octavius took the command in the West; Antony, in the East; while to Lepidus was assigned Africa; and to Sextus Pompey, who had now acquired considerable power, the Peloponnesus and the islands of the Mediterranean. Difficulties between Antony and Pompey soon arose, which resulted in the destruction of the latter. Lepidus, thinking this a good opportunity of adding Sicily to his possessions, drew upon himself the indignation of Octavius, who by secret intrigues procured the desertion of his army, made him prisoner, deprived him of all authority, and banished him.

B. C. 36.

10. Antony, by the influence of Octavia, for three or four years kept terms with Octavius. He at length undertook to conduct a war against the Parthians, at the head of 60,000 foot and 10,000 horse. He marched into Parthia, suffered defeats by his imprudence, and retraced his steps after having lost one-half of his army. Influenced by his blind passion for Cleopatra, he hastened to Egypt, which again became the scene of his dissipation and folly. He bestowed on Cleopatra and her children, first Phœnicia, Cyrene, and Cyprus, and afterwards all Asia from the Mediterranean to the Indus; and the ambitious queen thought, as was known in Rome, that she should yet "give law in the capitol."

11. The wrath of Octavius, now sanctioned by the people, was ready to break forth. Octavia had borne to Antony two daugh-

ters. She had kept his house in Patrician hospitality at Rome, and there entertained his friends; and although she knew his crimes against herself, had taken to her home and educated his children by his first wife Ful'via. She now set out to visit and if possible to save him. Antony forbade her approach, publicly divorced her, and married Cleopatra. But his fall was at hand. Octavius attacked and totally defeated him in a naval engagement, near Ac'tium. Early in the action sixty vessels, which Cleopatra commanded in person, fled and Antony immediately followed. His fleet was easily defeated; and after a few days his land forces, which had been drawn up on the adjoining shore, surrendered, without striking a blow.

12. Antony and Cleopatra repaired to Egypt, whither Octavius followed. Antony, despairing of his fortunes, and deceived by a false report of the death of Cleopatra, committed suicide. Octavius was desirous of conveying Cleopatra to Rome; but to prevent it, she exposed herself to the bite of an asp, which caused a lethargic death, without disfigurement. When the messenger of the conqueror came to take the celebrated queen to grace the triumph of his master, he found her elegantly reclining upon a sofa, but dead. Of her two maids, one lay dead beside her, and the other dying. Egypt was from this time a Roman province.

13. Octavius, on his return to Rome, was hailed with acclamations, and flattered by a gorgeous triumph. The obsequious Senate, whose vacancies he now filled with his own creatures, no longer laid claim to independence; and Rome henceforth became a monarchy. With the recent fate of Julius Cæsar before him, Octavius could not but be aware of the dangers with which he was surrounded. He wisely avoided the vain show of power, and sought to cover his usurpations by names acceptable to the people. At first he called his office the tribunate, and received it for ten years, after which it was renewed; and at length he took the title of Augustus and emperor. He assiduously courted the favor of the people, continuing to all the magistrates their old titles and offices, although the effective power of every office centered in himself. Counseled by his wise minister, Mæce'nas, and conversing freely with Vergil and Horace, he became the framer of salutary laws, and the patron of arts and letters.

14. *The world was now in a situation altogether different*

from anything before or since. The nations were gathered into one. The Roman empire embraced the best parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Its revenues were immense. A great army was kept on foot and distributed in different provinces. The prætorian and city cohorts, afterwards so powerful and dangerous, consisted of 10,000 men, and formed a guard for the emperor, to whose title the Senate now added that of "Father of his country." The king of Parthia sent to him the spoils of the army of Crassus, and the kings of India sought his friendship. The Spanish nation, being now for the first time completely subdued, and insurrection of the German tribes having been quelled, *the temple of Janus, which was shut only in profound peace, and which had remained almost always open since the reign of Numa Pompilius, was closed.*

15. In this period was born Jesus of Nazareth, from the supposed time of which event modern chronology is reckoned. It was not, however, until the sixth century later that this scheme of chronology was proposed; and researches have shown that there must have been an error of some years as to the time of the birth of Jesus.

QUESTIONS.—What course was taken by the conspirators after Cæsar's death? Give some account of Cæsar's funeral. Whither did the conspirators flee? What philosophical sect did Brutus belong to? Give an account of Octavius. Describe his expedition against Antony. What sudden turn in Antony's affairs occurred? What induced Octavius to plan the second triumvirate? Give an account of its formation. What shocking feature had this league? How many were proscribed? Whose murder is particularly noticeable? Give an account of Brutus. Of what troops was his army composed? Describe the battle of Philippi. The fate of Brutus. Had the triumviri still any enemies in the field? What was the condition of Italy? What can you say of Vergil? What was done by each of the following: First, Octavius; second, Antony; third, Lepidus; fourth, Sextus Pompey. Trace through the tenth paragraph the course of Antony. Describe the conduct and ill usage of Octavia. The battle between Octavius and Antony. Give a history of Antony's death—of Cleopatra's. In what respect did Octavius conduct more wisely than his uncle? What powers did he exercise?—what titles at length bear? Who was his wise minister? With whom did he converse, and what become? What was peculiar in the situation of the world at this time? What army was formed within the city of Rome? What was sent by the king of Parthia to Augustus? What temple was shut? How long had it remained open? What personage was it whose birth, in the time of Augustus, adds most to the interest of that era?

ROMA
Thule
Orcades
CALEDONIA
HIBERNIA
BRITANNIA
OCEANUS GERMANICUS
Oceanus Britannicus
Oceanus Gallicus
Oceanus Cantabricus
GERMANIA
GALLIA
VINDELICIA
HISPANIA
Corsica
Sardinia
MEDITERRANEUM
NUMIDIA
Melita
Syrtis Minor
Tiberis Fl.
Mons Vaticanus
Mons Janiculus
Mons Aventinus
Castra Praetoria
Pons Aelius
Pons Sublicius
Pons Milvius
Pons Salarius
Pons Nomentanus
Pons Triumphalis
Pons Cestius
Pons Janiculensis
Pons Vaticanus
Milliare Romanum
1000 Pasus

ROMAN EMPIRE
BY J. BARTHOLOMEW F.R.G.S.
English Miles
Roman Miles
GERMANIA EUROPÆA
SARMATIA ASIATICA
MARE CASPIUM
PONTUS EUXINUS
MARE
Syriæ Deserta
ARABIA
Deserta
Arabicus Sinus
Tropic of Cancer
MEDIA
MESOPOTAMIA
ELYMAIS
SUSIANA
Meotis Palus
Borysthenes Fl.
Tanais Fl.
Rha Fl.
Araxes Fl.
Alanus Fl.
Albania
Colchis
Iberia
Hyrcania
Parthia
Bactriana
Sogdiana
Scythia
Cappadocia
Armenia
Pontus
Bithynia
Galatia
Phrygia
Lycaonia
Pisidia
Lycia
Pamphylia
Cilicia
Syria
Phœnicia
Judæa
Arabia Petræa
Arabia Felix
Egypt
Thrace
Macedonia
Achaia
Epirus
Illyricum
Pannonia
Dacia
Moesia
Italia
Sicilia
Sardinia
Corsica
Africa
Numidia
Mauritania
Cyrenaica
Libya
Rhodes
Cyprus
Crete
Carthage
Alexandria
Jerusalem
Damascus
Antioch
Babylon
Ctesiphon
Susa
Persepolis
Ecbatana
Nineveh
Rome
Ravenna
Milan
Aquileia
Byzantium
Athens
Corinth
Sparta
Thebes
Delphi
Troy
Ephesus
Smyrna
Pergamus
Tarsus
Palmyra
Petra
Memphis
Alexandria
Thebes
Meroe
Axum
Nile R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Jordan R.
Dead Sea
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Atlantic Ocean
Britannia
Gallia
Germania
Hispania
Lusitania
Tarraconensis
Baetica
Gaul
Britain
Spain
Portugal
Ireland
Scotland
England
Wales
Rhine R.
Danube R.
Tiber R.
Po R.
Rhone R.
Seine R.
Loire R.
Thames R.
Severn R.
Forth R.
Clyde R.
Solway Firth
Irish Sea
North Sea
English Channel
Bay of Biscay
Gulf of Lyons
Adriatic Sea
Aegean Sea
Ionian Sea
Tyrrhenian Sea
Balearic Islands
Corsica
Sardinia
Sicily
Crete
Cyprus
Rhodes
Malta
Lesbos
Chios
Samos
Lemnos
Thasos
Corcyra
Cephalonia
Zacynthus
Ithaca
Crete
Carpathos
Paphos
Tripolis
Sidon
Tyrus
Ptolemais
Caesarea
Joppa
Hierosolyma
Samaria
Scythopolis
Gadara
Hippos
Pella
Dium
Gerasa
Philadelphia
Heshbon
Jericho
Jordan
Dead Sea
Petra
Hebron
Bethlehem
Gaza
Ascalon
Azotus
Joppa
Lydda
Emmaus
Nicopolis
Antipatris
Caesarea
Ptolemais
Tyre
Sidon
Berytus
Byblus
Tripolis
Antaradus
Laodicea
Seleucia
Antioch
Daphne
Apamea
Chalcis
Beroea
Hierapolis
Edessa
Carrhae
Nisibis
Singara
Hatra
Dura
Circesium
Thapsacus
Zeugma
Melitene
Arsamosata
Artaxata
Tigranocerta
Nisibis
Amida
Samosata
Cyrrhus
Berytus
Damascus
Palmyra
Petra
Bostra
Gerasa
Philadelphia
Heshbon
Jericho
Jordan
Dead Sea
Petra
Hebron
Bethlehem
Gaza
Ascalon
Azotus
Joppa
Lydda
Emmaus
Nicopolis
Antipatris
Caesarea
Ptolemais
Tyre
Sidon
Berytus
Byblus
Tripolis
Antaradus
Laodicea
Seleucia
Antioch
Daphne
Apamea
Chalcis
Beroea
Hierapolis
Edessa
Carrhae
Nisibis
Singara
Hatra
Dura
Circesium
Thapsacus
Zeugma
Melitene
Arsamosata
Artaxata
Tigranocerta
Nisibis
Amida
Samosata
Cyrrhus

IX. The Roman Empire.

1. The treasures of the world poured into Rome; and stately monuments, splendid buildings, literature, and the fine arts all marked an age of luxury. But the liberty of the people had become extinct. The spirit of the republican institutions had departed, and a military despotism had usurped its place. Here and there, perhaps, a spark of the old Roman spirit might kindle in the breast of some solitary patriot, but it was soon smothered. The memory of the aged carried them back to the scenes of horror which marked the days of Marius and Sylla, when they knew not freedom but by history and tradition. The young were taught to turn with disgust from the prospect of a renewal of civil wars, and welcomed peace and quiet, though purchased by the surrender of the sovereign power into the hands of one individual.

2. Augustus had a wide grasp of mind, by which he penetrated far in consequences. He had industry and observation to learn for himself the truth of the circumstances and characters which surrounded him; and he was as prompt to do as he was quick to know. Hence he presents the sublime spectacle of one mind ruling and reducing to order a vast scene of chaos, such as was the Roman empire at his elevation.

3. The emperor made a new arrangement of the provinces, which had before been governed by supreme magistrates commissioned by the Roman people and named prætors. He now divided between the Senate and himself the authority over the whole empire. But in order to keep in his own hands the entire power of the army, he took as his share all the foreign provinces, and left the Senate the Italian states. These they ruled by proconsuls, with only civil authority. Augustus governed the remainder of the empire by dividing his army of 400,000 men, and stationing them in such provinces as he chose, under generals of his own appointing, who were dictators each of his own province. The camps of these great armies were often chosen in the valleys of the great rivers, and they soon became cities. The fleet was manned by 50,000 men, and these were easily transported from place to place at the emperor's pleasure. He instituted as his own guard ten cohorts of 1,000 soldiers each, who were called the prætorians; and this number he soon doubled.

4. The policy of Augustus inclined him to peaceful measures, and he wisely considered *the danger of extending the empire.* His tranquillity was, however, disturbed by a disastrous war in Germany, in which Va'rus, his general, suffered a signal defeat. To establish his authority and secure the succession in his own family, he associated with him in the government Marcel'lus, the son of his excellent sister Octa'via, by her first marriage, to whom he gave for a wife Julia, his only child. Marcellus dying, Julia was bestowed on Agrippa (a general to whom Augustus owed important military successes). She was a profligate woman; and Augustus, whose own moral character was not good, was at length obliged to banish her from his court. He had married Liv'ia, the mother of two sons, Dru'sus and Tibe'rius. The former, recovering the German provinces, received the name of German'icus. Livia was unprincipled, artful, and intriguing. Having great influence over Augustus, she secretly sought to elevate her own sons above the members of his family.

A. D. 9.

5. Augustus associated Tiberius with himself in the administration of the empire, but required him to adopt Germanicus, the son of his brother Drusus Germanicus, now dead. These things being done, Augustus died in the deep secrecy of the palace. The manner and exact time of his death are unknown; the circumstances were, however, such as gave rise to suspicion that he was poisoned by Livia.

6. Tiberius, who on the death of Augustus was in possession of the imperial power, was a hypocritical, sensual, and cruel tyrant, though an able general. At first he dissembled, and appeared to govern with moderation; but the mask soon dropped. The fame of Germanicus, who at the time of the death of Augustus commanded in Gaul, excited his jealousy. Germanicus was recalled, and transferred to the command of Syria, where Tiberius procured his death by poison. Livia enjoyed but little the elevation of her favorite son. He was jealous of her power, dreaded her genius, and treated her with neglect; and when she died he denied her funeral honors.

7. He removed his court from Rome to the island of Ca'preæ; but in the midst of brutish sensuality and continual intoxication he kept, as it were, a demoniac eye on the affairs of Rome. He knew everything that passed; detected every conspiracy; and

while the companions of his vices were quaffing with him the cup of intoxication, he perhaps was plotting with impenetrable dissimulation to destroy them. Conspicuous virtue was a mark for vengeance. Fearing the friends of those he destroyed, he removed them also. Even a mother's mourning for her slaughtered son was in his eyes a crime deserving death. The Senate, to whom he transferred all the political rights of the people, had become degraded, and obsequiously sanctioned his acts, and offered the incense of perpetual flattery to the man who filled their streets with blood. It was under the administration of this most debased of men that Jesus Christ was crucified in Judea.

8. Tiberius adopted Calig'ula, the son of the good Germanicus, but not the heir of his virtues; and he said that he raised "a serpent for Rome, and a Pha'eton to burn the rest of the world." Caligula, eager to obtain the imperial dignity, was declared
37. emperor while Tiberius was supposed to be in the agonies of death. But the tyrant opening his eyes, the party of Caligula threw the bed-clothes over his head, and stifled the reviving spark of existence.

9. Caligula wished that "the Roman people had but one neck, that he might despatch them at a blow." His conduct accorded
41. with the disposition here expressed. After a reign of nearly five years he was murdered, and the stupid Claudius, brother of Germanicus, was raised by the prætorian cohorts to the imperial throne. Although vice pervaded the capital, there were able generals abroad, and victory crowned the arms of the legions, especially in the wars with the Parthians and Britons.

10. Nero, whose very name used to signify all that is base and cruel, was raised to the empire. On his first accession he
54. revived the hopes of the people by giving promise of a just and peaceful reign; but the illusion was soon dissipated, and the murder of his tutor—the philosopher Sen'eca—his brother, his wife, and his mother, displayed the relentless tyranny of his character. He gave loose rein to the most licentious passions; and subserviency to his pleasures proved the only passport to his favor. Professing himself a patron of fine arts, he aspired to the character of poet, and degraded the dignity of the empire by appearing as a public actor on the stage. The discovery

of repeated conspiracies increased his maliciousness and jealousy. The city presented a scene of blood, and funerals darkened the streets.

11. The Christians, who had now become numerous in Rome, were the peculiar objects of his hatred. To amuse himself with such a spectacle as Homer related in the burning of Troy, he caused Rome to be set on fire, then charged the crime to the Christians, and devised means for their punishment. While the city was burning, he was engaged in revelry and dancing. He decorated his person, sang, played the lyre, and was, in short, the leading coxcomb of his time. He corrupted the high-born youth of Rome, making them the companions of his revels. Flatterers and sycophants thronged around him; and he was pleased when they told him that he was the greatest of poets, and that his voice was "divine melody." The discovery of a design which he had formed for destroying the Senate and for setting fire to the city again produced a general revolt. The Senate became aroused and pronounced sentence of death against him. Different armies named each it own generals to succeed him. He fled from the capital to a villa owned by one of his favorites, where he put an end to his life.

12. The whole Roman empire now presented a scene of discord. The military force with which Augustus had kept the world in awe, now in weaker hands, recoiled upon the monarchy. The soldiers had learned their power, and the Senate could only assent to their decisions. In two years, four generations were successively raised to the sovereignty by their respective armies. Three of them were displaced and murdered. Gal'ba, the first, was commander of the military forces in Spain, when, at the age of seventy-three, he was proclaimed emperor of his legions. The Senate confirmed their choice, and a promised donation to the prætorian cohorts secured their concurrence. By parsimoniously withholding the promised donation and by attempting to enforce rigid discipline,

69. he alienated the prætorians. They soon proclaimed O'tho, who had commanded in Lusita'nia (Portugal). A bloody tumult succeeded, in which Galba and his friends were murdered and Otho elevated to the throne.

13. Vitel'lius, to whom Galba had committed the command of the German legions, was by them already proclaimed emperor,

and was marching towards the capital. His forces met and defeated those of Otho, who committed suicide. Vitellius entered Rome as a conqueror, and a horrible scene of carnage ensued. Meanwhile the legions of the east declared for Vespa'sian, who commanded in Judea. Those in Syria, Egypt, and Illyricum espoused his interest. After a bloody civil war, Vespasian was
70. raised to the imperial throne. This proved the commencement of a new order of things. His authority was recognized by the Senate, and peace and order were restored to the suffering community. Vespasian directed his earliest efforts to the regulation of the finances, the enforcement of discipline in the army, and the subjection of rebellious provinces. Some of the Germans and Gauls had united in an attempt to throw off the Roman yoke, and the success of their arms spread the terror of their name even to Rome itself. The generals of Vespasian were at length victorious, and reduced the Germans to submission.

14. Vespasian reigned ten years, most of which were passed in tranquillity. He was the first Roman emperor who had died without violence, unless we except Augustus. Ti'tus, who was styled "the delight of mankind," succeeded his father, and sustained the character of a virtuous and beneficent prince. His is one of the rare instances in which elevation in rank produces improvement in virtue. His efforts were directed to the happiness
79. of his people. The zeal with which he engaged in noble undertakings may be learned from the regret which he would express when, on reviewing the events of a day and finding no good deed performed, he exclaimed, "O my friends, I have lost a day." His reign of two years was prosperous in all that depended upon himself, although marked with several disastrous events. One of these was the eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which desolated a considerable portion of the country, and buried in ruins Hercula'-
80. neum, Pompe'ii, and Sta'biæ. The elder Pliny, desirous to observe the phenomenon, went so near the crater as to be destroyed by the volcano. A fire broke out in Rome, which for three days raged with fury, and destroyed a great portion of the city; and a pestilence spread its ravages, which in its most destructive period swept from Rome 10,000 persons in a day. Titus repaired from his treasuries the loss by fire; and his kindness and compassion comforted the hearts of his afflicted people.

15. Domi'tian, brother of Titus, succeeded him. He was cruel, frivolous, and blasphemously vain, causing himself to be styled God and Lord. He once assembled the Senate to debate on the question, in what utensil it was best that certain fish should be dressed. Once in mockery he invited the Senate to a feast; and when arrived at the palace, they were by his order conducted to a gloomy subterraneous hall, lighted by dim tapers, hung with black, and provided with coffins, on one of which, each guest saw his own name inscribed. Soldiers with drawn swords came in upon them and threatened their lives. After this, which the emperor esteemed a good joke, he let them depart. His chief amusement was catching flies, at which he was very expert. He, however, engaged in war, on an alarming invasion of the Da'cians; but it was only to buy a shameful peace by a tribute.

81.

16. Julius Agric'ola, who was sent to Britain by Vespasian, defeated, near the Grampian hills, the brave Gal'gacus, and subdued the country to the firths of Clyde and Forth, between which he constructed a chain of forts. He civilized the native inhabitants, by persuading them to adopt the costume, language, and manners of the Romans. Agricola's fame excited the mean envy of Domitian, who recalled and probably poisoned him. The tyrant fell by a conspiracy, and the whole nation rejoiced. The Senate, perhaps remembering the graves by which he had frightened them, would not allow his body to be buried. Quintil'ian was at this period a teacher of eloquence in Rome, and was the first who received a public salary.

78.

17. Ner'va, at the age of seventy, succeeded Domitian. He is distinguished by his amiable and benevolent character. Finding the weight of the empire too great for his advanced age, he associated Tra'jan in the government, and designated him as his successor. The character of Trajan is one which historians unite in applauding. The wise Plu'tarch was his preceptor, and the younger Plin'y, one of the best characters which Rome had produced, was his intimate friend. Although a warrior and a conqueror, Trajan governed with moderation and equity, and so established himself in the affections of his subjects that it was customary in succeeding times, on the elevation of an emperor, to wish "the felicity of Augustus, and the virtue of Trajan." His military achievements restored the luster of the Roman arms. He conquered Dacia and, at the head of his legions,

98.

crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, and *reduced Mesopota'mia to a Roman province.* He marched through tracts of country where the Roman arms had never before been known, penetrating even to India. On his return he established a king upon the Parthian throne, and appointed lieutenants in various places.

18. Historians have censured his policy in enlarging the boundaries of the empire, and his inhumanity in persecuting the Christians leaves a blot upon his otherwise untarnished fame. He made laws against them, ordering that they should be put to death when found, but that they should not be sought after. When he visited An'tioch the venerable Ignatius, bishop of that city, presented himself to the emperor, and vindicated the faith of Christ. Trajan imprisoned him, and sentenced him to be thrown to the wild beasts at Rome. Animated with the prospect of a martyr's crown, he went joyfully thither, and suffered death by the lions of the amphitheatre. Trajan died at Seleu'cia.

107.

107.

117.

19. Ha'drian, the succeeding emperor, returned to the pacific policy of Augustus; and with the exception of Dacia, he even relinquished the conquests of his predecessor. This, and the two succeeding reigns, have been pronounced the happiest days of the Roman empire. The laws of Hadrian were salutary, and his administration excellent. He secured the future prosperity of the nation by appointing a worthy successor. This was Titus Antoni'nus, afterwards surnamed Pius. When he ascended the throne he found the various departments of government moving on in regularity and order, and the whole empire in prosperity and peace. His reign of twenty-three years flowed on in the same calm and happy course. He was averse to war, and the circumstances of the state permitted him to indulge his love of peace; while his renown for wisdom procured the admiration of the barbarians, who in their differences resorted to him as arbiter. In his reign the persecution of the Christians ceased, and all classes of his subjects reposed in peace, trusting in the justice of their sovereign.

135.

138.

20. Mar'cus Aure'lius Antoni'nus, who succeeded Titus in the imperial government, had acquired, by his attachment to science and philosophy, the name of the Philosopher. The situation of the empire, however, did not permit Aurelius to indulge in his favorite pursuits, or to pass his days

161.

in contemplative retirement. The camp required his presence; for the peace of the empire was now disturbed by its various borders. In Asia the Parthians rebelled against the sovereignty of the Romans, as did the barbarians on the Rhine and the Danube. Aurelius sent his generals against the Parthians, and in person conducted the war against the hordes of the north. The Parthians were defeated, and many of their cities taken. After many campaigns, Aurelius unhappily fell a victim to the hardships of barbarian warfare.

21. With the reign of Aurelius the prosperity of the empire ceased; and from the accession of his son Commodus, its decline may be dated. A more striking contrast never was presented than in the characters of the father and son. Aurelius had taken him to aid in command against the barbarians; and on the death of the former, despite good advice, Commodus purchased a peace, that he might give himself up to the voluptuous pleasures of Rome. There he became a foul and loathsome debauchee; and outraging all the honorable feelings of the Romans, he fought as a gladiator in public spectacles for the amusement of the vulgar.

180.

22. Conspirators put him to death, and raised Per'tinax, prefect of the city, to the imperial throne. The prætorian guards murmured at the elevation of a man of whose virtues they were assured, and who, educated in the school of Aurelius, was little likely to yield to their disorderly demands, or shower upon them the profuse liberality of Commodus. His attempt to reform the financial system increased their hatred; and in less than three months from the time they swore allegiance, a sedition broke out in the camp. Two or three hundred of the guards rushed in arms to the palace where Pertinax, securely relying on his innocence and their oath, was inhumanly murdered. A most disgraceful scene succeeded. Returning to the camp with the head of Pertinax borne as a trophy, the guards now offered the Roman world to the highest bidder.

193.

23. The wealth of Did'ius Julia'nus, a vain and voluptuous senator, enabled him to meet the demands of the rapacious prætorians, who immediately completed the contract, proclaimed him emperor, took the oath of allegiance, and escorting him to the palace, surrounded him with the ensigns of imperial dignity. The

BRITAIN
UNDER THE ROMANS
English Miles
20 40 60 80 100
Roman Miles
20 40 60 80 100
The modern coast line is indicated thus
Oceanus
Germanicus
Hibernicus
Britannicus
Oceanus Britannicus
Oceanus Verginius
Litus Saxonicum
Britannia
Caledonia
Hibernia
Gallia
Maxima Cæsariensis
Britannia Prima
Britannia Secunda
Flavia Cæsariensis
Britannia
Valentia
Vindelicia
Noricum
Pannonia
Rhætia
Germania
Gallia
Belgica
Aquitania
Lugdunensis
Narbonensis
Alpes Cottiæ
Alpes Maritimæ
Alpes Penninæ
Alpes Graiæ
Italia
Sardinia
Corsica
Sicilia
Africa
Mauritania
Numidia
Cyrenaica
Aegyptus
Hispania
Tarraconensis
Baetica
Lusitania
Mare Mediterraneum
Mare Internum
Mare Tyrrhenum
Mare Adriaticum
Mare Ionium
Mare Aegeum
Mare Siculum
Mare Africum
Mare Balearicum
Mare Cantabricum
Mare Atlanticum
Fretum Gallicum
Fretum Herculeum
Fretum Siculum
Fretum Ionium
Fretum Hellespontum
Fretum Propontidis
Fretum Bosporus
Fretum Cimmerium
Fretum Caspium
Fretum Arabicum
Fretum Persicum
Fretum Indicum
Fretum Magnum
Fretum Gaditanum
Fretum Oceani
Fretum Britannicum
Fretum Saxonicum
Fretum Hibernicum
Fretum Caledonium
Fretum Orcadum
Fretum Scythicum
Fretum Caucasium
Fretum Euxinum
Fretum Thracium
Fretum Aegeum
Fretum Ionium
Fretum Siculum
Fretum Africum
Fretum Balearicum
Fretum Cantabricum
Fretum

obsequious Senate, though attached to Pertinax, yielded to the occasion, and ratified the election of the prætorians; but the indignant legions of Britain, of Illyricum, and Syria, proclaimed each its respective general, as more worthy of the empire. Seve'rus, who was in Illyricum at the head of hardy and disciplined forces, accustomed to contests with the warlike barbarians of the north, advanced towards Rome. By his contiguity to Italy, and the celerity of his movements, he anticipated his rivals, and in sixty-six days from the elevation of Julianus, Severus, without drawing a sword, was proclaimed emperor at Rome. The prætorians abandoned the victim of their venality; the Senate deposed him, and he was executed like a common criminal.

24. Four years of civil war succeeded, during which Severus, with a military talent approaching to that of Julius Cæsar, triumphed over his rivals; but he treated them with shocking cruelty. He degraded and banished those prætorians who had been engaged in selling the empire. A war with the Caledonians, which he led in person, occupied him in his later years. To keep out the barbarians from the north in Britain, he rebuilt with stone a wall which Hadrian had made from Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne. He died at York. His sons Caracal'la and Ge'ta, then in Britain, were declared joint emperors. Caracalla murdered his brother. He thus obtained sole possession of the throne. His whole reign was stigmatized by deeds of blood and infamy.

25. Caracalla extended the Roman citizenship to all the provinces. The tribute received from the provinces, which Gibbon estimates at a sum equal to about 100,000,000 of dollars, was represented by Augustus as not sufficient for the purposes of government, and he artfully contrived to make the Roman citizens submit to taxation by impost. Succeeding emperors increased their burdens; and Caracalla now extended the right of citizenship, in order to impose on the foreign provinces the taxation of the citizens, while he failed to relieve them from the tribute of the stranger. They felt the double burden, and their discontent was one of the causes of the decline of the empire. Caracalla was assassinated in

217. Syria, at the instigation of Macri'nus, prætorian prefect. Macrinus was raised to the throne, but was

218. shortly deposed, and Heliogab'alus, a reputed son of Caracalla, was invested with the sovereignty. His short

reign of four years was one of unmingled infamy. His violent death, the merited punishment of his crimes, again left the imperial throne at the disposal of the enemy.

26. Alexander Severus, the cousin of Heliogabalus, was invested with the purple. He was amiable, just, and humane, and his reign is like a beam of light amidst surrounding darkness. He inherited from nature a happy disposition and a superior intellect, and was educated by a careful mother. Amidst the corrupting influences of regal authority, he was an example of industry, sobriety, and regularity of life; an elegant scholar, an affectionate son, a wise statesman, and an able general. He restored to the Senate many of its rights, reduced the tribute of the provinces, and sought to enforce discipline in the army. But the military had become too strong for his curbing hand.

222.

27. Alexander went into Asia to conduct a war against the Persians. While he was at Antioch a portion of his army revolted. Appearing in the midst of the infuriated soldiery, he said: "Be silent in the presence of your sovereign. Reserve your shouts for the enemy, or I will no longer allow you to be soldiers." They brandished their swords and rushed towards him. "Keep your courage," said he, "for the field of battle." They persisted in their dangerous demands, and again he spoke: "Citizens, no longer soldiers, lay down your arms and depart to your respective habitations." The boisterous element of sedition sank into grief and shame, and the soldiers obeyed. After a time he restored their arms; and this legion was ever afterwards devoted to his interests.

28. The ancient monarchy of Persia had at this period revived, under a chief named Artaxerx'es. Claiming all Lesser Asia as the successor of Cyrus, the Persian came into collision with the Roman empire. The event of the war was at least so far unsuccessful to the Romans that Artaxerxes retained the countries which he had conquered. Hardly had Alexander Severus returned from the Persian war before he went into the North, to encounter a vast swarm of barbarians who threatened to overwhelm the empire. In his camp on the banks of the Rhine, while successfully pursuing the war, this prince, too good for the age in which he lived, fell, with his mother, a victim to another mutiny of the soldiers, formed by Maximi'nus, an ambitious aspirant to the throne.

226.

29. Maximinus was born in Thrace. His father was a Goth. Thirty-two years before, when Servius halted his army in Thrace, to celebrate the games at wrestling, the young barbarian Maximinus, of the gigantic height of eight feet, and of a size and strength in proportion, presented himself, and in a rude dialect asked to be admitted as a competitor. His prodigious exploits astonished the emperor, and he permitted the giant to enlist as a common soldier. From this time Maximinus rose by degrees, till he attained a high command in the army. But without gratitude or mercy, he had nothing but brute force to recommend him. He persuaded the soldiers that Alexander was effeminate. They slew Alexander, and proclaimed the barbarian emperor. He was suspicious of contempt from the well-born and learned, and he hated and destroyed them. The Senate refused to sanction the nomination of the army; and though Maximinus continued the German war with success, his cruelties created disaffection which, when he made the taxes of the provinces intolerable, broke into a revolt.

235.

30. In Africa the proconsul Gor'dian, a man of eminent virtues, was with his son proclaimed emperor, and the election was ratified by the Senate. The governor of Maurita'nia espoused the cause of Maximinus, and attacked and defeated the Gordians, who both perished in battle. The Senate, desperate on hearing this, nominated two of their own number, Max'imus and Balbi'nus. The news of these proceedings roused Maximinus to fury. At the head of his legions, and breathing vengeance on his foes, he advanced upon Italy; but here he found a wasted and desolate country. By the care of the Senate, all provisions and forage and all the inhabitants were removed. He laid siege to Aquile'ia. His army, suffering from fatigue and famine, became mutinous; a conspiracy was formed, and the barbarian was slain in his tent. The virtuous reign of Maximus and Balbinus was short and insecure. The nation, indeed, rejoiced in the destruction of Maximinus; they undertook reformation; but the real sovereigns of the Roman empire, the prætorian guards, were refractory, and declared that they would not acquiesce in any choice made by the Senate. They slew Maximus and Balbinus and proclaimed young Gor'dian, a descendant of one of those who fell in Africa.

236.

31. In the East, the Persians continued to incroach upon the empire, and had already invaded Mesopotamia. Gordian marched

against them, and had compelled them to retreat from the Tigris, when his sudden death checked the progress of the Roman arms. Philip, an artful Arabian, who by his abilities had risen to be prefect of Rome, was immediately proclaimed em-
244. peror by the army. The Panno'nian legions revolted and invested their general, De'cius, with the purple. The rival emperors met in battle at Verona, where victory declared for Decius; and Philip, after a reign of five years, lost his crown and his life.

QUESTIONS.—Point out on the map of the Roman empire the countries which it included. What was the condition of the Roman empire? What was the character of Augustus? What new arrangement did he make respecting the provinces? How did the Senate rule the Italian states? How did the emperor govern the remainder? What numbers were in the Roman standing army?—the navy? What number constituted a legion? How many legions were there, and how distributed? Give an account of the prætorian guard. To what did the policy of the emperor incline him? What disturbed him? Who was Marcellus?—Julia?—Agrippa? What was the character of Livia? Who were her sons? Who was Germanicus? What account can you give of the death of Augustus? Give an account of the beginning of the reign of Tiberius. How did he treat Livia? Did he, while at Capreæ, understand the affairs at Rome? Were they bad citizens whom he destroyed, and real crimes which he punished? What had he done to gratify the Senate? What was at this time their character and condition? Give an account of Tiberius' successor—of the manner of his succession. What speech of Caligula shows his character? Who succeeded him? Give an account of Nero. What fact respecting the Christians now becomes apparent? On what pretense did Nero seek to destroy them? (What may be presumed concerning the character of the Christians when such a man as Nero hated them?) Relate the manner of Nero's death? What was now the condition of the empire? Give an account of the first of the generals raised to be emperor by his army. How did Galba lose the favor of the soldiers? Give an account of his successor. Relate the contest between Otho and Vitellius. By whom was Vitellius succeeded? Give an account of the administration of Vespasian. Of what is the emperor Titus a rare instance? How did he manifest a right disposition? What disasters occurred in his reign? Give an account of Domitian. Give an account of Agricola. How did he civilize the Britons? What further can you relate of Domitian? Who was Quintilian? Give some account of Nerva. What illustrious author was said to have been Trajan's preceptor? —his friends? What was the character of Trajan? Give an account of Trajan's administration. What laws did he make respecting the Christians? Give an account of Ignatius. In what respects has Trajan been censured for impolicy?—for cruelty? What was the happiest period of the Roman empire? What accounts can you give of Hadrian?—what of his successor, and the state of the empire? What was the name and the char-

acter of the successor of Antoninus Pius? What disturbances arose? Give some account of Commodus—of Pertinax. What degrading measure was taken after the death of Pertinax? What account can you give of Didius Julianus? Give an account of the reign and character of Severus—of his acts in Britain. What happened on the death of Severus? Why did Caracalla extend the right of citizenship? Who were his successors? Give an account of Alexander Severus. What example is given of the lawless insolence of the soldiers? On what occasion of revolt did Alexander curb them with dignity? What is here said of Persia? In what wars was Alexander Severus engaged? Give an account of Maximinus. Give an account of the Gordians, father and son. Whom did the Senate proclaim? What was the fate of the Gothic giant? What part was taken by the prætorian guards? Who succeeded Maximus and Balbinus? What was done by Gordian? What can you say of Philip?

X. The Decline of the Empire.

1. *The barbarian Goths now, for the first time, poured down upon the empire.* Crossing the Danube, they entered Thrace, and spread devastation and ruin on all sides. Decius marched against them, and after a struggle of two years this monarch, worthy of better times, perished in battle. Gal'lus, his general, was made emperor. He purchased a peace with the barbarians, that he might return to the ease and luxury of the palace—thus revealing the weakness and the wealth of the empire, and taking the surest course to incite other invasions. Nor did the hardy and rapacious barbarians linger long; and, while the Goths and other hordes made attacks on the North, Persia menaced Syria and the other provinces in the East.

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2. Æmilia'nus, one of the great generals of Gallus, routed the Goths and pursued them beyond the Danube. His praise was everywhere heard, while Gallus was despised. So strong is ambition in man that Æmilianus coveted the imperial purple, stained as it was with the blood of so many emperors, and worn but as a prelude to assassination. He was proclaimed by his troops, and met the army of Gallus at Spole'to. The soldiers of the emperor mutinied, murdered him, and confirmed the succession of Æmilianus. Vale'rian, who in the reign of Decius had been appointed censor of the Senate, and had faithfully executed many offices of trust, now at the age of sixty, appeared at the head of an army of superior strength, as a competitor for the imperial power. The soldiers of Æmilianus after he had

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reigned four months dispatched him to make a way for his more powerful rival.

3. Valerian stood high with all; but age had impaired his mind, or the people had been deceived in his character. With the blindness of parental affection he left in his place, while he de-
254. parted to the war in the East, his son Gallie'nus, who, possessing genius without judgment, was excellent in poetry, oratory, cookery, and gardening, but contemptible in war and government. The empire was attacked on all sides. The Franks, the Alemanni, the Goths, and the Persians hovered on the different frontiers, and threatened it with destruction; while Gallienus amused himself in Rome, held mock triumphs, smiled, and made witty speeches when he heard the news of Rome's disasters.

4. The Franks, from whom are descended the modern French, had always defied the Roman arms; indeed, they received the name of *Franks* or *Freemen,* from their love of independence. They now spread terror and consternation through the provinces of Gaul and Spain; and they passed over into Africa and threatened the province of Mauritana. The Alemanni, whose name signifying *all men* expressed their great numbers, were a warlike race inhabiting Germany. They crossed the Danube, passed the Rhætian Alps, into the plains of Lombardy, advanced to Raven'na, and alarmed the capital. Gallienus sent his lieutenants against the Franks, but remained in Milan to amuse himself there, whilst on the Senate devolved the task of providing for the defense of Italy from its formidable enemies.

5. On the throne of Persia was Sa'por, the son of Artaxerxes. He had compelled the Armenians, allied to Rome, to submit to
268. his power, and advanced upon the Roman provinces. Valerian, marching to oppose him, intimidated the Goths, who were in possession of the Euxine, in Asia Minor, and for a time they withdrew. The emperor then passed the Euphrates and was betrayed into a trap near Edessa, where his army was surrounded by that of the Persians. Affecting to consent to a parley, Sapor made him prisoner. Valerian was the first Roman emperor who suffered that disgrace. His army surrendered and the haughty Persian spared him no indignities, mocking him, and treading on his neck. At length the aged emperor sank beneath his fate, and died; while Sapor spread the terror of his arms through Syria and Cilicia.

6. Neither the death of his father nor the distress of the empire interrupted the amusements of Gallienus. But the disaffection of his people sometimes aroused him to direful revenge. In one instance he commanded the governor of a province to exterminate all the males. Usurpers, encouraged by the discontent of the people, started up in every direction. A fancied resemblance between this period and that of the Athenian tyrants gave rise to the assertion that there were thirty claimants in Rome for the imperial purple. Nineteen only can be traced, and all these died by violent means. Gallienus at length fell.

7. At this deplorable crisis the Roman empire seemed lying in hopeless ruin. The civil wars caused by the several usurpations, the contests with the barbarians, and their devastations, together with famine and pestilence, say the historians, had swept from the face of the empire one-half of its inhabitants. But from the course of history we may infer that the pride of the Romans had been humbled, and that virtue, so often the child of adversity, was now the fruit of their miseries; and in Clau'dius, who was next placed on the throne, Rome once more possessed a sovereign suited to her wants. His first efforts were directed to restoring order to the army, and preparing for the expulsion of the barbarian invaders. In his reign of two years he defeated the Alemanni, and obtained so great a victory over the Goths, who had passed over into Greece, as to obtain the appellation of the Gothic Claudius.

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8. Claudius died of the plague, and was succeeded by Aure'lian, whose great military abilities for a time stayed the destruction of the Roman empire. The barbarians, though repulsed by Claudius, were ready to resume their depredations. The provinces of Britain, Gaul, and Spain were in a state of revolt; and Syria, Egypt, and Asia Minor acknowledged the sway of Zeno'bia, queen of Palmy'ra. She was the widow of Odena'tus, a general who had humbled the pride of the haughty Sapor. Aurelian, after disciplining his army, obtained some advantages over the Goths, and entered into a treaty by which he guaranteed them a safe retreat into their own country on condition of their furnishing the Romans with a body of two thousand auxiliaries, consisting of cavalry. Finding it difficult to defend so extensive a frontier, he withdrew the Roman forces from the ancient Da'cia,

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removing the greater part of the Dacians to the southern side of the Danube, thus adding strength to the province of Mœ'sia, which now received the name of Dacia. A part of the inhabitants of the old province, however, chose rather to remain in subjection to the Goths.

9. While Aurelian was thus engaged, the Alemanni made an irruption into Italy and extended their devastations from the Danube to the Po. The emperor hastened to meet them and, after three battles, drove them from Italy. He next quelled an insurrection headed by Tet'ricus, who held command over Gaul, Spain, and Britain. In a bloody battle, fought near Chalons, Aurelian was victorious. The whole empire, with the exception of those provinces which owned the sway of Zenobia, now acknowledged him as its sovereign.

10. Of the early history of Palmyra, whose ruins afford the modern traveler an object of wonder and admiration, little is known. By some it is supposed to have been the Tadmor of the desert, built by Solomon. But that so splendid a city should have risen in the midst of a barren waste can be accounted for only by its situation, as lying between the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean Sea, thus constituting an emporium for the merchandise conveyed in caravans from India to Europe. In the contests between the Romans and the Parthians, Palmyra maintained its independence until the victories of Trajan, after which it sank into a Roman province. In the war which Sapor waged with the Romans, and in which the emperor Valerian was made prisoner by the Persians, Odenatus, the prince of Palmyra, was the only eastern ally who rendered the Roman empire any service. He made an attempt to recover Valerian, which, though unsuccessful, harassed the Persians and prevented the further progress of their arms. To reward his service, Gallienus declared him his colleague in the empire, but Odenatus was assassinated by his nephew.

11. Zenobia, his widow, immediately after his death assumed his authority, and conquered Egypt, from whose ancient Macedo-
269. nian kings she claimed to be descended. Such was her reputation that Persia, Armenia, and Arabia dreaded her power and courted her favor. Her sway extended over Syria, and she assumed the splendid title of "Queen of the East." Zenobia is represented as the personification of mingled loveliness and

majesty. But she had to cope with the superior force of the empire, and the military skill of the first captain of the age. Aurelian
272. defeated her at the two battles of An'tioch and Edes'sa, and while he was prosecuting the siege of Palmyra. Here, reduced to the last extremity, Zenobia undertook to escape by flight; but she was taken prisoner and conveyed to the camp of Aurelius. The monarch reserved her for his triumph. He allowed the few Palmyrenes who had escaped the desperate siege to rebuild the city; but he stained his glory by putting to death the wise and amiable Longi'nus.

12. Aurelian on his return was gratified by a splendid triumph, in which the beautiful Zenobia, covered with jewels and bound in chains of gold, followed his triumphant car on foot. Yet he afterwards gave her a beautiful villa at Tiv'oli, where she found an honorable seclusion. After his triumph, Aurelian advanced towards Asia, with the design of humbling the pride of Persia. On his march, near Byzantium, he was assassinated in a sudden frenzy of the soldiers. An interregnum of eight months succeeded his death. The legions repented the rashness which had deprived them of an able though severe commander, and humbly requested the Senate to appoint a successor. The Senate, struck with such unwonted respect from the military, referred back the choice to the army. Three times the reciprocal offer was made, and rejected; meanwhile the whole Roman world remained tranquil.

13. The Senate at length chose Tac'itus, one of their number, venerable for virtue and years, a descendant of the historian of that name. He remonstrated against the choice. "Are these limbs, Conscript Fathers," said he, "fitted to sustain the weight of armor, or to practice the exercises of the camp?" But resistance was vain. He was forced to assume the sovereignty. His election was ratified by the legions of France, whither he proceeded.

14. The barbarians of Germany, taking advantage of the interregnum which succeeded the death of Aurelius, had renewed their devastations in the provinces, and destroyed many flourishing cities in Gaul. Pro'bus drove back the Franks, recovered the cities, and vanquished the gloomy Ly'gii, a people residing near the frontiers of Poland and Silesia. "Their shields," says the historian Tacitus, "are black, their bodies painted black. They choose for the combat the darkest hour of the night. Their host advances, covered as it were with a funeral shade, nor do they often find

an enemy capable of braving so strange and infernal an aspect." Yet the disciplined legions of Probus discomfited these spirits of the night; nor were they afterwards known in history. Probus carried the war into Germany also, and compelled the barbarians to sue for peace. To guard that frontier, he erected an extensive stone wall, strengthened by towers. This good emperor, perceiving that the idleness of the army had been a fruitful source of disorders, exercised the legions in planting vineyards, and in other useful labors. They murmured, and assassinated him.

15. Ca'rus, the prætorian prefect, was raised by the army to the vacant throne. He associated with him in the government his two sons Cari'nus and Numer'ian. He left the West under the charge of Carinus, while Numerian accompanied him to the East, in an expedition against Egypt. Carus had advanced to Mesopotamia, and made himself master of the cities of Seleucia and Ctes'iphon, when his death, said to have been occasioned by lightning, put an end to the war, as the superstitions of the legions would not allow them to proceed farther. Numerian died by the hand of an assassin, on the return of the army from Asia; and Carinus, dwelling in Rome, displayed a poor imitation of Nero—his profligacy, without his taste. The legions of the east conferred the imperial power on Diocle'tian.

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16. Diocletian possessed that pervading energetic mind which controls circumstances and events; and his accession is an era which marks the beginning of a new system of government, perfected in the reign of Con'stantine. To the military despotism which had so long governed the nation, now succeeded the despotism of the court. Diocletian early associated with himself in the cares of government his friend and fellow-general Maximia'nus, and gave him an equal share of the imperial honors. For the better administration of the government he then chose two colleagues. One was Constan'tius Chlo'rus, adopted by Maximianus; the other Gale'rius, adopted by himself, to whom were committed a share of the sovereign authority, and who were to be the successors of the emperors. On these colleagues he conferred the title of Cæsar. They had the command of the provinces of the Rhine and the Danube, while the two emperors reserved for their immediate superintendence Africa, Italy, and the East. Maximianus resided in Milan, and Diocletian in Nicomedia.

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17. These measures, by depriving Rome of the presence of its emperors, served to diminish the power of the Senate, and to sink into oblivion all those republican titles to which the Romans even yet fondly clung. At such a distance it could not be expected of the emperors to apply to the Senate for the ratification of their decrees; and the power which had belonged to them only when at the head of the army, now came to be exercised by them upon all occasions.

18. Galerius kept the Goths in check. Maximianus quelled insurrections which had arisen in Africa, while the superior genius of Diocletian was directed to the Persian war. The disgrace inflicted on Rome by the proud Sapor in the person of the venerable Valerian was as yet unatoned for. The Romans formerly exercised as a right the honor of nominating the king of Armenia. Sapor had subjected this province. Tirida'tes, son of the king of Armenia, had been preserved while an infant from the wreck of his father's fortune, and protected from the Roman emperors during his minority. As he had now arrived at manhood, Diocletian declared him the sovereign of Armenia, and sent him to claim the throne of his father. The Armenians hailed their native prince with every demonstration of joy, they having now been ninety-six years under the Persian government; and nobles and people flocked to his standard.

19. Diocletian seized the favorable opportunity of humbling, in Persia, the only remaining rival of the empire. His arms triumphed, and Persia was compelled to sue for peace. In the treaty the Roman boundaries were somewhat extended, the Armenian prince was acknowledged, and the dependence of Armenia upon Rome established. After the termination of this war Diocletian, who had not visited Rome since his elevation, repaired to the city, where he enjoyed a splendid triumph, memorable as the last of these gorgeous exhibitions of human vanity. In the twenty-first year of his reign, not long after his triumph, and when the empire had been delivered from its foreign enemies and restored to peace,

394. Diocletian formally resigned the imperial power, and retired with philosophic calmness to the enjoyment of an elegant retreat in Dalma'tia. He had prevailed on Maximianus to resign his power also; and the abdication of the two emperors, the one in Milan, the other in Nicomedia, took place on the same day.

20. Diocletian's great name is stained by the most cruel of all the persecutions of the Christians. Of the ten persecutions, the first was (A. D. 64) under Nero; the second (95) under Domitian; the third (107) under Trajan; the fourth (118) under Adrian; the fifth (212) under Caracalla; the sixth (235) under Maximinus; the seventh (250) under Decius; the eighth (257) under Valerian; the ninth (274) under Aurelian; the tenth, and most severe, was begun on Christmas day (303) under Diocletian when, in the city of Nicome'dia, then the seat of Diocletian's court, six hundred of the despised followers of Christ assembled to celebrate his nativity. The emperor gave the horrid order to bar the doors and set the building on fire; and his executioners enclosed them living within their funeral pyre, where they all perished.

21. Constan'tius, who with Galerius was now elevated to the rank of Augustus, retained it but fifteen months, when he sickened at York. Con'stantine, his son, hastened from Nicomedia with secrecy and celerity, and, arriving before his death, was appointed his successor. The army in Britain saluted him Augustus and emperor. Spain and Gaul ratified the nomination. The inhabitants of Rome felt more than ever the weight of the taxes which were levied with merciless severity upon them, and were indignant at the continued absence of the emperors from the imperial city. The Senate, and the prætorians, whose power Diocletian had almost annihilated, joined in a conspiracy with the citizens against Galerius; and Maxen'tius, the son of Maximianus, was invested at Rome with the imperial dignity. The restless spirit of Maximianus could not submit tamely to the retirement to which Diocletian had doomed him, and he now came forward to lend his name and aid to the party of his son, assuming to himself the exercise of the imperial power. Two other claimants appeared, and Rome now felt the evils of a divided government. No less than six emperors, at enmity among themselves, shared the sovereign power. These dissensions led to bloody and destructive civil wars. *After a period of eighteen years the genius of Constantine triumphed over all his rivals, and he remained sole master of the empire.*

QUESTIONS.—Give an account of the Goths—of the movements of Decius. What was the name and conduct of his successor? Give an account of Æmilianus. Give some account of Valerian—of his son. By what nations was the empire now attacked? Give an account of the Franks —of the Alemanni. Who was Sapor? Give an account of the war between

him and the Romans. What was the consequence of the foolish behavior of Gallienus? What was now the condition of the empire? What was the character and conduct of Claudius? What was the character of Aurelian? What enemies had he to contend with? What course did he pursue? Give an account of his war with the Alemanni—with Tetricus. What is known and supposed of Palmyra? Give an account of Odenatus—of Zenobia. What account did Aurelian give of her? What was the event of the siege of Palmyra? What exhibition of vanity had the emperor on his return? What more can you say of him? What occurred on his death? Give an account of Tacitus—of his immediate successor. What enemies had Probus to encounter? What was the result of his operations? For what did the soldiers assassinate him? Who were the succeeeding emperors? Give an account of Carus—of Numerian—of Carinus. What was the intellectual character of Diocletian? What change did he begin? How did he distribute the government of the whole empire to himself and three others?—where fix the two principal seats? How did these arrangements affect the Senate and people of Rome? Describe the court of Diocletian. What is said of the rebellion of Britain? What was the state of things in the East? Give an account of the Persian war. What occurred at Rome on the return of Diocletian? What further can you relate of this emperor and his colleagues? What is a deep blot on his character? Give an account of the ten persecutions. Who were left emperors? Where was Constantius when he made his son his successor? What number of emperors were now in the field?—and what was the state of the empire? What account can you give of Valeria?

XI. The Divided Empire.

1. Two events mark the boldness of Constantine's genius and render his name memorable. The one was *the removal of the seat*
328. *of the Roman empire to Constantinople;* the other was *his adoption of Christianity as the religion of the empire.* Constantine made a new division of the Roman world into four prefectures, which were subdivided into dioceses, and these into provinces. No particular one was regarded as head of the whole church, but the emperor was such in fact. In this capacity he called the first ecclesiastical council, or collection of bishops, at
325. Nice, in Asia Minor, he having taken sides in the controversy between Athana'sius and A'rius, against the latter. The council in this respect agreed with the emperor.

2. On the death of Constantine, his dominions were divided between his three sons, Constantine, Constan'tius, and Con'stans. Constantine, who governed the eastern portion of the empire, found himself early involved in Persian war. The fame of his father had, during his life, checked all encroachments on the eastern

provinces. Sapor, the grandson of Narses, was now on the Persian throne, and had for several campaigns waged a successful war upon the provinces. Constantine marched against him. The Persian arms triumphed at Singara. The monarchs at length withdrew their forces and a peace was concluded. After Constantine's return, a dispute between him and Constans ended in his violent death, and left Constans sole master of the West. He maintained his authority for ten years, when he fell a victim to the ambition of Magnen'tius, the general of the Gallic legions, who assumed the purple. Constantius found himself unequal to the weight of the empire, and was constrained to look for some one with whom to divide its cares. His cousin Ju'lian, now the only remaining member of the Constantine family, had been left to pursue his studies in obscurity, among the Grecian philosophers. Constantius appointed him Cæsar and gave him command of the provinces of Gaul. He conducted in person the war with the Samaritans, whom he defeated and compelled to sue for peace.

3. Julian (called the Apos'tate from having forsaken Christianity), whose abilities for action had been despised on account of his love for study, showed himself an able general in a successful contest with the Franks and Alemanni. 360. Constantius issued an order commanding a large attachment of the veterans who were under Julian to march to the aid of the eastern legions. The troops, reluctant to enter upon what they deemed a foreign service, and unwilling to leave a general whom they loved for the emperor whom they despised, refused obedience, and at once proclaimed Julian emperor. With feigned reluctance he accepted the crown; and, to enforce his claim, marched with secrecy and despatch to the attack of Constantinople. Constantius, relinquishing the Persian war, marched to meet him; but his death relieved the empire from the horrors of civil contention.

4. The reign of Julian was memorable for the reëstablishment of paganism. He did not indeed revive the persecutions of former pagan sovereigns, or prohibit the worship of the Christians; yet he removed them from offices of trust and from the care of the education of youth, and oppressed them in various ways. Julian settled the concerns of the West and proceeded into Asia. After wintering in Antioch, he marched towards Persia, ravaged the plains of Mesopotamia, passed the Euphrates, and spread devastation through a part of Syria. 362.

5. At the passage of the Tigris the Romans obtained a victory over the Persians, but here their successes ended. Julian was induced to burn his fleet at the suggestion of a treacherous Persian who, in the character of a deserter, had entered his camp. As the Romans advanced their provisions failed. The cattle were driven away; the inhabitants had departed; and the country, naturally fertile, presented only smoking ruins. The emperor sought to retrace his steps; but the Persian prince appeared in sight with a numerous army, hovered around, and harassed his retreat. Attempting to force his way, Julian was mortally wounded. The
363. officers could not agree upon a successor, when the name of Jo'vian, a man of no military renown, but attached to the household of Julian, was circulated among the troops, and he was immediately declared emperor.

6. On the accession of Jovian, Christianity again became the established religion of the empire. But his reign was terminated by death before he reached Constantinople. Valentin'ian, commander of the guards, was unanimously proclaimed his successor.
364. He appointed his brother Va'lens as his colleague, committing to him the eastern provinces, while he himself retired to the western, where he prosecuted the war against the barbarians with considerable success. Yet the decline of the empire became more and more apparent. The civil wars of the sons of Constantine had destroyed vast numbers of soldiers, and left the frontier exposed to the depredations of the barbarians. The valor and energy of Julian had indeed for a moment checked their incursions, but his unsuccessful Persian war had still further weakened the military force of the empire, and prepared the way for the peace by which Jovian began its dismemberment. Valentinian died in the twelfth year of his reign, and left the empire to his son Gra'tian, with the condition that a younger son named Valentinian, then an infant, should be associated with him.

7. The Goths, who had repeatedly invaded the empire, again appeared on its frontier; not now indeed in the character of hostile barbarians, but of humble suppliants, themselves driven from their dominions. The Huns, a vast and terrible race inhabiting the north of Asia, and more barbarous than either the Goths or the Germans, had been precipitated, by the wars in the East, upon the frontiers of Europe. Under At'tila, called the "Scourge of God," they had subdued the nations of the Ala'ni, who inhabited the

regions of the Goths. The Ostrogoths soon submitted. The Visigoths, in terror as the desolating "Scourge" approached, supplicated the emperor Valens for vacant lands on the southern banks of the Danube, engaging to guard the frontier from the dreaded enemy.

8. Valens agreed to admit the Gothic nation within the empire on certain conditions, to which they acceded. A million barbarians, who could bring into the field two hundred thousand warriors, were thus admitted to a peaceful settlement within the heart of the empire. The emperor granted the Goths permission to engage in traffic; but the avarice of the Roman ministers rendered the permission not only useless but destructive to them. At length their property was exhausted in procuring means of subsistence, and they were compelled to sell their children to obtain bread. The treachery of the Roman governor of Marcianop'olis toward Frit'igern, a valiant Goth, kindled his wrath. He summoned his countrymen to arms, and led them to Mœsia, which they overran and desolated, and then proceeded to threaten the capital.

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9. Valens now sought to crush a nation which he had first introduced into the heart of the empire and then forced by ill usage to become his enemies. Gratian, who had just succeeded his father in the West, was summoned to his aid, but was prevented by an irruption of the Alemanni, which employed his whole resources. The Visigoths, meanwhile, had formed an alliance with a body of Ostrogoths, who had procured a settlement on the southern side of the Danube, and with some scattered hordes of the Alani and Huns. On the plains of Adrianople, Valens met the barbarians, and the courage and skill of the Roman legions failed in the encounter. The emperor was wounded and conveyed to a building, which being fired by the enemy, he perished in the flames. Two-thirds of the imperial army were destroyed; the remainder fled, and the Goths ravaged the country to the suburbs of Constantinople.

10. Gratian, meanwhile victorious over the Alemanni, marched to the relief of the East. He associated with himself in the government Theodo'sius, a native of Spain. Theodosius was free from the vainglory of conquest, and he pursued at first a careful and watchful policy. From Thessaloni'ca, which he made his headquarters, he kept his eye fixed upon the barbarians and availed

himself of every judicious opportunity of wasting their forces, or gaining over their leaders.

11. Fritigern died, and disunion among the Goths ensued; the different tribes pursued each its own individual interest without concert or design; and in four years from the death of Valens the policy of Theodosius procured an advantageous peace, the conditions of which were arranged in the neighborhood of Constantinople. While Theodosius was calming the disorders of the East, a new insurrection had arisen in the West. The indolence of

383. Gratian had alienated the affections of his subjects. Max'imus, at the head of his legions, entered Gaul, where he was hailed as emperor. Theodosius met and defeated the forces of Maximus, and executed the usurper. The provinces returned to their allegiance; and Theodosius, superior to the seductions of prosperity, so often fatal to virtue, magnanimously restored to Valentinian the throne of Milan, and added to his dominions the provinces of Britain and Gaul. But the young prince soon fell

388. a victim to domestic treason. Theodosius thus became sole monarch of the empire, now for the last time united under the sway of one sovereign.

12. During the reign of Theodosius *the ecclesiastical power manifested itself as already superior to the civil.* Ambrose, bishop of Milan, had forbidden to the Empress Justi'na, who reigned in the name of her son Valentinian II, the use of a chapel where she might worship agreeably to her belief in the A'rian doctrines. The bishop next sternly and openly denounced her as a heretic; and when she passed an edict to banish him, he refused to obey, nor could she compel his obedience, or punish his contumacy. Theodosius in a moment of passion had given the only cruel order which stains his equitable government, that of putting to the sword the offending people of Thessalonica. He repented and sought, too late, to hinder its execution. Ambrose boldly reproached him, and exacted of him a public penance; and the master of the world, in a mournful and suppliant posture, with sighs and tears, confessed and deplored his crime, in the presence

393. of the congregation. Theodosius died at Milan, a few months after he had quelled the disturbances on the death of Valentinian. Before his death *he divided the empire between his two sons; and this division, proving permanent, becomes an important epoch in history.*

QUESTIONS.—What was the character of Constantine? What two events rendered his name memorable? What effect had his measures on Christianity? How did he divide the empire? Who was not regarded as head of the whole church? Who was so in fact? What assemblage did he convene?—on what occasion? How were Constantine's dominions divided? How was the government administered? Give an account of the Persian war—of Constans—of Magnentius. What was the effect of the civil war? How was the empire attacked? Who was Julian? How did Julian manifest his character? On what occasion was he proclaimed emperor? How was his accession secured and the empire saved from civil war? For what is his reign chiefly memorable? Give an account of Julian's Persian expedition—of his attempts to rebuild the Jewish temple. What was the manner of his falling into a snare? What were its consequences? Relate the appointment of his successor. What religion did Jovian favor? Give an account of his successors—of the disastrous state of the empire. Give an account of Gratian. In what character did the Goths now approach the Romans? Give an account of the Huns. What had been the extent of the Gothic empire in the days of their great chief? What division of the nation submitted? Which petitioned Valens, and for what? Where did they settle? What was their whole number?—the number of their warriors? How were they treated in respect to traffic? To what did necessity compel them? What chieftain arose? Give an account of the battle between the Goths and the Romans? Why did Gratian choose an associate? Why did he select Theodosius. Give an account of the manner in which Theodosius treated the Goths—of the opinion of the chief respecting him? Give some account of Maximus. What account can you give of Justina? What was done by Ambrose in relation to Justina?—to Theodosius? What division of the empire did Theodosius make?

XII. The Decline and Fall of the Western Empire.

1. The student has hitherto found his attention directed to some one great nation, extending its influence to all the smaller kingdoms and nations of the earth, and thus, at the same time, placing before him the whole civilized world. From this period he will find his attention divided, first between the two divisions of the Roman empire, now distinct and separate governments, and subsequently between various and independent and powerful nations arising from the ruins of the Roman empire, and of the civilization of the northern barbarians.

2. On the death of Theodosius his son Arca'dius succeeded to the eastern empire, comprising Thrace, Dacia, Macedonia, Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt, while to his remaining son, Honor'ius, fell the western empire, which contained Italy, Africa, Gaul, Spain, Britain, and the provinces of Noricum, Pannonia, and Dalmatia.

Although the barbarous nations had bowed to the superior abilities of Theodosius, they knew their own strength and the weakness of the empire. The Roman armies were not only filled with barbarian auxiliaries, but they were also not infrequently commanded by chiefs of barbarian origin; while the indolent and effeminate citizens refused to leave their luxurious pleasures for the service of their country. Luxury had in another manner laid the train for the subversion of the empire. The Roman soldiers had obtained permission of the different emperors to cast aside their heavy shields and a part of their armor, so that when they were exposed to the attacks of the barbarians, now instructed in the art of war, clad in armor, and skilful in the use of missile weapons, the contest was unequal, and the barbarians had the advantage. The youth and incapacity of Arcadius and Honorius subjected them to the control of their favorites. Rufi'nus, a Gaul, governed the councils of Arcadius; while Stil'icho, a Vandal, directed the administration of his brother.

3. The western Goths under Alaric took up arms, passed into Greece, and spread desolation through Macedonia, Thessaly, and Attica. Rufinus, deeming it a stroke of policy to turn their arms upon Italy, negotiated an alliance with them, and privately advised Alaric to seek his fortune in the western empire, promising that succor should be sent him. The Goths accordingly proceeded towards Illyricum, Istria, and the northeast of Italy.

402.

4. The fears of Honorius were awakened by this invasion, and to preserve his union from danger, he removed his residence from Milan to Ravenna, a more secure situation, which henceforth became the imperial city. An irruption of barbarians now occurred, more formidable than even that of the Goths, who, being Christianized, possessed the rudiments of civilization. These were a confederacy of the German nations, the Van'dals, Sue'vi, Burgun'dians, and part of the Ala'ni, to the number of two hundred thousand fighting men. Headed by their king, Radaga'isus, they issued from the shore of the Baltic, showed themselves upon the banks of the upper Danube, passed into Italy, and laid siege to Florence. The active Stilicho appeared with his army, surrounded the barbarians, and, besieging them in their camp, reduced them to the greatest distress, and compelled a great part of

406.

them to capitulate. Radagaisus perished, when the remainder of the army retreated. Leaving Italy, they proceeded to devastate and take possession of Gaul, from the Rhine to the Pyrenees. "This," says Gibbon, "may be considered as the fall of the Roman empire beyond the Alps."

5. The feeble and contemptible Hono'rius, whose principal occupation, history informs us, was to feed poultry, was moved by the arts of an ambitious flatterer to jealousy and hatred against the only man whose talents could support his tottering state. Stil-

410. icho was murdered, and Alaric advanced upon Rome. The venerable city was forced to purchase with money the retreat of the barbarians. The conditions of the payment not being strictly complied with, Alaric made this a pretense to return. Again he besieged Rome, and compelled the reluctant Senate to receive from him At'talus, the prefect of the city, as their emperor. The capital was still spared, but the Gothic troops overran and devastated Italy. Attalus did not long enjoy the favor of the Gothic chiefs, who, the following year, degraded him from the imperial dignity. Honorius, at Ravenna, still refused to make peace with the Goths. They returned, thirsting for spoils, and bent upon destruction, and Rome, so long vaunted as the "eternal city," was taken and suffered during six days the horrors of sack and pillage from a barbarous soldiery.

6. Alaric passed triumphantly forth and bent his course to the south of Italy, intending to embark for Africa, when he died. His grave was made in the bed of a small stream, whose waters, for that purpose, had been conducted from their channel. After his burial, the stream, in resuming its wonted course, concealed forever the body of the conqueror. Adolphus, his brother-in-law, succeeded him. After the Goths had enjoyed an undisputed control during four years, he concluded a peace with Honorius, re-

412. ceiving from his hand his sister Plac'ida in marriage. He retired from Italy into Gaul, and from thence into Spain, where he founded the kingdom of the Visigoths.

7. The terrible Huns, who had driven the Goths and Vandals from the north of Europe, now spread their savage hosts from

442. the banks of the Volga to those of the Danube. Attila, their king, claimed descent from the ancient Huns who had contended with the monarchs of China, and seven hundred

thousand warriors followed his banners. He had conquered the various nations of barbarians who still inhabited northern Europe. The Gep'idæ and the Ostrogoths, and the kings of Scandinavia and of the islands, owned his supremacy. His depredations extended to Persia, and Theodosius II, now emperor of the east, was compelled to pay him tribute. He made an alliance with Gen'seric, and, preventing the eastern emperors from yielding assistance to Valentinian, facilitated the conquest of the Vandal king.

8. Intending to invade the western empire, Attila sought to unite with him the nations of Gaul, among which the Visigoths, headed with Theod'oric, the son of Alaric and permanently settled in the southern part, were the most formidable. Theodoric wavered between the rival powers; but when Æ'tius marched into Gaul, he united in its defense. Ætius further drew to his standard as

451. allies the Saxons, the Burgundians, the Sarmatians or Alani, the Franks, and other powerful tribes. At Chalons, Ætius and his auxiliaries encountered the formidable host of Attila, and by one of the bloodiest battles ever recorded compelled him to retreat. The Visigoths constituted the strength of the Roman forces; and Theodoric, their valiant king, fell in the battle. The Goths, animated by the son of Theodoric, were furious to revenge his death; but the policy of Ætius, who wished to preserve the Huns as a counterpoise to the power of the Goths, secured for Attila a retreat.

9. The power of Attila, however, was not broken, nor were his resources exhausted. The ensuing spring, with apparently un-

452. diminished strength, he passed the Alps and invaded Italy, and besieged and took Aquileia, Milan, and Pavia.

453. The death of Attila, disuniting the various nations who had yielded to the sway of his genius, ruined the power of the Huns and relieved Rome for a time from the terror of its most formidable enemy. Yet the destruction of the empire was not to be stayed by the removal of external foes.

10. Maximus was elected emperor. He compelled Eudox'ia,

454. the widow of Valentinian, to marry him; and she, in the madness of hatred, secretly called on Genseric to

455. avenge her wrongs. He had become powerful by a naval force, and had extended a system of piracy into every part of the Mediterranean. Joyfully accepting the invitation

to invade Italy, he landed his troops at the mouth of the Tiber, and advanced to the gates of the now defenseless city. Maximus, on learning of the approach of the Vandals, attempted to escape, but was slain in the streets. The entreaties of the good Leo saved the city from conflagration; but for fourteen days and nights it presented horrible scenes of pillage and rapine. Private and public wealth; the treasurer of palaces and churches, became the prey of the Vandals.

11. Italy having suffered severely from the piracies of the Vandals, Majorianus built a fleet, vainly endeavoring to subdue the power of Genseric. His want of success afforded Rec'imer a pretense to depose him. This maker of emperors next put up Severus, of course himself exercising the sovereign power. Finding a navy necessary to prevent the depredations of the Vandals, Recimer solicited the aid of Leo, who now filled the imperial throne of Constantinople; and his assistance was granted on condition that he should nominate an emperor. He accordingly named Athe'mius, who repaired to Italy, where, to strengthen his power, he gave his daughter in marriage to Recimer, a Gothic prince. The strength of both the Roman empires was now employed against Genseric, but failed to deprive him of his naval supremacy. Recimer became jealous of Athemius and espoused the interest of Olyb'rius, who had married the daughter of the Empress Eudoxia, marched to Rome, took the city, and delivered it up to pillage. He slew Athemius and declared Olybrius emperor. Forty days after, Recimer died, and Italy rejoiced in the death of the tyrant.

467.

12. Olybrius reigned but seven months. Two competitors appeared: Glyce'rius, a Roman, and Julius Ne'pos, the governor of Dalmatia. Glycerius exchanged his crown for a miter. Julius Nepos was received by the Senate, and reigned a year. Ores'tes, a Pannonian, who commanded the motley army of barbarians that had enlisted in the Roman service, now excited a rebellion among them. Nepos, on their approach to Ravenna, retreated to Dalmatia, and Orestes proclaimed his son Augus'tulus Rom'ulus emperor of the west. Orestes found that the power which he had so easily acquired for his son was not so easily sustained. The barbarians who procured his elevation, not content by the increase of their pay and privileges,

472.

475.

required him to divide among them a third of the lands of Italy. Orestes refused to sacrifice the natives of the soil to their capricious

476. demands. Among them was the ambitious Odoa'cer, king of the Her'uli, a savage people who had migrated from the coast of the Baltic to Pannonia and Noricum. He led them to Rome, took and pillaged the city, executed Orestes, and assumed the sovereign power. Augustulus Romulus laid down his sceptre and found mercy in the camp of the Herulian chief. So passes from the historic scene the last emperor of Rome. Odoacer

476. was the first barbarian who reigned over Italy under the name of king. *The western empire, after existing until one thousand two hundred and twenty-nine years from the foundation of Rome, was now extinct;* while the eastern, at the end of their separation in the like state of decay, continued nearly a thousand years longer.

QUESTIONS.—To what has the attention of the student hitherto been directed? What empire has successfully occupied the principal place? What is now to become the course of history? From what origin are we to find nations arising? Which of the sons of Theodosius had the Eastern empire? Of what did it consist? Which had the Western? What provinces did it comprise? What causes of the downfall of the empire were now at work? Who were the respective favorites of the monarchs? What nation attacks the Romans? What portion of the empire do they ravage? How and by what treachery is their course turned? What change did Honorius now make in the seat of the Western empire? What irruption of barbarians occurred? Why was it more formidable than that of the Goths? What was their progress? By whom and how were they met? Where did they then go? What part of the Roman empire was then cut off? What kind of an emperor was Honorius? How did he reward his best friend and ablest general? What immediately followed? How did Rome put off her evil day? What treatment did the city, formerly boasted as eternal, now receive? Relate the death and burial of Alaric—the noble conduct of his brother-in-law. Where and how was the marriage of Adelphus and Placidia celebrated?

Nations Formed on the Ruins of the Roman Empire.

I. The Eastern Empire.

1. The stronger allurements which the Western empire offered to the barbarians, and the subsidies paid by the emperors of the East, preserved the latter in comparative tranquillity. Arca'dius, a weak and timid prince, was succeeded by his son Theodosius upon the throne at Constantinople. He was a minor at the time of his accession, and during his whole reign he was subject to the influence of his sister Pulche'ria. On his death she succeeded to the throne, and was the first female who swayed the sceptre of the Roman empire. She was a princess of genius and virtue. On her death the Theodosian family became extinct in the East. Mar'cian, her husband, continued to reign, with a vigorous and prudent policy. Despising the artifices by which former emperors had purchased immunity from the dreadful arms of the Huns, he stopped the payment of the subsidies. The Huns menaced revenge; but the death of Attila, occurring at this period, delivered the empire from the danger of the threatened invasion. Leo, the successor of Marcian, was emperor at the period of the destruction of the Western empire. Ze'no, Anasta'sius, and Justin successively ascended the throne, but left behind them no deeds which should preserve their names from oblivion.

408.

450.

457.

2. Justin'ian succeeded Justin, and sent Belisa'rius with an army into Africa. Belisarius conquered the Vandals, reduced Carthage, and took Gel'imer, whom he carried to Constantinople to grace his triumph. Africa now belonged to the Eastern empire. After this the government of Italy was administered by officers styled Exarchs, who held their court at Ravenna and were representatives of the Eastern emperor.

527.

3. The Bulga'rians, aided by a multitude of barbarous Slavo'nians, now crossed the Danube, ravaged Macedonia and Thrace, and extended their devastations within a few miles of Constantinople. Belisarius met and defeated them. A most dreadful pestilence spread its ravages through the empire, and for a time its virulence seemed undiminished by the change of seasons. At length its malignity abated; but for half a century its presence was in some degree felt. In Constantinople during three months five thousand and at last ten thousand persons were reported to have died daily. Many cities of the east were depopulated; and during the reign of Justinian there was a visible diminution of the human species.

553.

4. Justinian derives his chief reputation from his system of Roman jurisprudence. With the assistance of Tribo'nian, an eminent lawyer, he digested and simplified the mass of laws which had been accumulating for ages, and formed those bodies of law called the Justinian Code, the Pandects, and the Institutes. *This was the greatest work of the age and forms the foundation of the present civil law of Europe and America.*

5. Justin II, who was nephew and successor to Justinian, was unequal to the weight of government and associated with him Tiberius, a man of surpassing merit, the captain of the guards. The barbarian Lombards, under Alboin, conquered the northern part of Italy and established a kingdom to which they gave the name Lombardy. Maurice succeeded him, then Pho'cas, then Herac'lius, a ruler of ability. The successors of Heraclius for a considerable period present no name worthy of record; and the annals of the empire are marked with revolting accounts of intrigues, assassinations, and petty revolutions of the palace.

578.

6. The Isaurian dynasty commenced with Leo III, who rose from an obscure origin. In his reign was the commencement of the controversy respecting the use of images in the church, the Roman church contending for it and the Greek church being against it. *This dispute separated the eastern and the western churches* and contributed to disengage Italy from all dependence upon the Greek and Byzantine empire. Images were restored by Ire'ne, who was the empress-consort of Leo IV, and mother of Constantine VI.

741.

7. The bishops, or overseers of the Christian churches at first

demeaned themselves in the meek spirit of the founder of their religion. But at length they sought temporal power and worldly advantage. The bishops of the great cities assumed authority over those of the surrounding country. Rome, Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem became the seats of ecclesiastical power, and their bishops might be said to constitute an oligarchy in the church.[1] By degrees those of Rome and Constantinople became predominant, and each regarded the other with rivalry.

This unholy spirit broke into action on the question of images and, as we have seen, severed into two branches the visible church. *Pope Theodo'rus I (642) assumed the title of sovereign pontiff.* Gaining one concession after another from Christian princes, the pope of Rome became, in the dark ages, a king of kings.

8. The Feudal System is a term used to express the manner in which the chiefs who conquered by the aid of their armies, and settled in the conquered countries, divided the lands among their followers; and the liabilities and privileges growing out of this division. The leaders, after retaining what they chose, gave out the lands in large portions to their principal captains, on condition that these should do homage to them, pay certain sums of money, and appear in the field with a certain number of retainers whenever called. These chief officers, after keeping what they desired for their own use, divided the remainder of the land assigned them among their own favorites, who were to furnish money and soldiers to them, as they were to the king. The conquered inhabitants who remained became slaves and were transferable with the lands. The kings rose by their prowess; but *the monarchy was generally at first elective in their families, then hereditary.*

QUESTIONS.—What preserved the Eastern Empire in comparative tranquillity? Give some account of Pulcheria—of Marcian. What happened in the reign of Leo? Who were the next three of the emperors? Give some account of the African war. What was established after the destruction of the kingdom? What disasters occurred about this time? From what does Justinian derive his chief reputation? What are the

[1] There were *four general councils* of bishops and doctors, called Ecumenical Councils. The first was convoked (325) by Constantine, and was held at Nice, in Asia Minor. The Nicene Creed was here adopted. The Patriarchs of Alexandria and Constantinople presided alternately. The second was convoked (381) by Theodosius, and held at Constantinople. The third was convoked (431) by Theodosius the Younger, and was held at Ephesus. St. Cyril, the patriarch of Alexandria, presided. The fourth was convoked (451) by Marcian, and held at Chalcedon, when it was decided that the church at Constantinople should have the same privileges as that of Rome. The opinions of Arius were the occasion of these councils, and although respectable minorities were in favor of them, they were condemned by the majority.

bodies of law digested by Tribonian called? Who were the successors of Justinian? Give an account of the rise of the Lombard power. Who was now emperor? What was the condition of the Greek empire? What dispute occurred in the reign of Leo the Isaurian? Who restored image worship in Constantinople? What may be said of the bishops of the Christian churches in the first century? Where were the four general councils held? What bishops constituted an oligarchy? What two became predominant? Who first took the title of Sovereign Pontiff? What did the Pope become? What is meant by the feudal system? What considerations would induce the chiefs in those times to preserve warlike attitude? How were the conquered lands divided? What became of the conquered inhabitants? Was the kingly office then hereditary?

II. England and France.

1. When Alaric and his Goths threatened Rome, Stil'icho withdrew from Britain the legion which guarded the wall of Severus. The warlike barbarians to the north of the wall—the Scots, said to have migrated from Ireland; the Picts and the Jutes, tribes from the peninsula of Jutland—invaded and distressed the
428. Britons. They applied to Honorius to protect them, and once or twice that emperor sent some feeble aid; but at length he wrote them to defend themselves. The flower of their youth had been withdrawn and had fallen in the battles of the empire; and relying on the Romans, the Britons had sunk into effeminate dependence. Left to themselves, they disagreed in the election of a sovereign, but at length fixed on Vor'tigern. Their enemies were at their doors, and people and king agreed on the dangerous experiment of asking foreign aid. At their request, in 449, Saxons from the mouth of the Elbe appeared in three galleys
449. at the island of Thanet,[1] under the brothers Hen'gist and Hor'sa. Vortigern took them into his pay, and they proceeded against the Caledonians, whom they defeated at Stamford.

The Saxons, however, demanded a stronger force; and next arrived sixteen ships containing, besides the Saxons and Danes, a
450. portion of another tribe, the Angles, from whom England derives its name. The Britons, finding the Saxons appropriating the island, endeavored to drive them out, but with-
455. out success. Hengist made himself King of Kent, which was the first kingdom of the seven or eight which the Saxons founded.

[1] At the mouth of the Thames; it is not now an island.

2. Hengist destroyed many of the nobles, and was feared for his valor and cruelty. His niece, at his instigation, poisoned Vortimer, her son-in-law. The Britons then raised to the chief command King Arthur, a native prince, the sovereign of Cornwall and Devon, who, with his knights, performed prodigies of unavailing valor. Before the Saxon kingdoms were established one hundred and thirty-five years of distressing warfare elapsed. The Saxons remained in possession of all the cultivated parts of south Britain, while the unhappy natives were driven to the mountains of Wales and Cornwall and to the district along the northeast coast of the island. During these disastrous wars a part of the Britons passed over to the Continent and settled in the Gallic province of Armorica, to which they gave the name of Bretagne, or Brittany.

488.

3. Ireland was not conquered by the Romans. This very ancient land was little known to the ancient world, because of its remoteness. It was called by the Greeks *Ier'ne,* and by the Romans *Hiber'nia,* both words being corruptions of the native name *E'rin.*

Late in the fourth century a Keltic youth, captured in Gaul, was carried to Ireland as a slave. After several years of bondage he effected his escape and returned to his home. Having prepared himself for the service of the church, he was sent as a missionary to convert the Irish people. The name *Patric'ius,* or Pat'rick (meaning noble), was conferred upon him. His success was marvelous. Without warfare or coercion, but solely through the force of his personal influence, the whole of Ireland was Christianized within the period of his missionary labors, which were ended by his death in 463. Schools were established in connection with the churches which he built, and learning was cultivated assiduously. He was a strenuous opponent of slavery.

For some centuries following his labors, Ireland was known as the "Isle of Saints and of Scholars." Thus when Rome passed under the sway of barbarians, the last verge of western Europe became a source of light which was radiated upon the world. Missionaries were sent forth to convert and to teach in England and on the Continent. From a school established by the Irish in York went forth Al'cuin, who became the friend and counselor of Charlemagne, and who induced that monarch to aid and encourage institutions of learning in the vast new empire. Patrick is regarded with veneration as the patron saint of the Irish.

4. The states of the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy (seven allied kingdoms) in Britain were as follows:

Continued from to		
454-823.	1.	Kent, comprising Kent and a part of Surrey. Hengist, the first king, was said to be descended from Odin, or Wodin, the war-god of the Scandinavians.
499-721.	2.	Sussex (South Saxons), Sussex and a part of Surrey.
509-....	3.	Wessex (West Saxons), founded by Ced'ric, a Saxon general, from whom the Saxon kings of England were descended. King Arthur, with his knights,
419-590.		fought this general, and at Badon Hill, near Bath, defeated him, killing, it is said, four hundred with his own hand!
530-823.	4.	Essex (East Saxons), Middlesex and London.
547-559.	5.	Bernicia, Northumberland, Durham, and a portion of Scotland. This kingdom was founded by Ina, a reputed descendant of Odin.
560-....	6.	Deira, Lancashire, York. Founded by Ella. (Bernicia and Deira afterwards united and formed Northumbria.)
575-....	7.	East Anglia, a small part of the eastern coast, called also Angle-land, from whence the name, England. The Saxons unanimously agreed to give this name to the country.
568-....	8.	Mercia, which formed a part of Deira, was established later.

5. The monarchies of the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy were rather elective than hereditary. The power of the king was little, as he carried out the wishes of his nobles and people, who held councils called *Witall,* or Wittanagemot'. Ina, king of the West Saxons, was the first to assemble this body, which is considered *the germ of the British Parliament.*

So complete was the sway of the Saxons in the greater part of the island that their language became in a great measure the speech of the whole people. *More than half of the words in common use in the English language are of Saxon origin.*

6. A very interesting event of the time of the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy was the conversion of the country to the Christian religion. The period assigned to this is that which immediately followed the arrival of St. Augustine, in 597. With forty monks that noted missionary began in that year his missionary labors in Britain. But there had been Christians there much earlier. The Britons had been generally Christianized long before their expulsion to Wales. St. Alban, the first British Christian martyr, suffered in the reign of Diocletian.

597.

7. It is not customary for students of history to spend time in studying the events set forth in the old "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" of the Heptarchy. After ages of contention among themselves, the seven kingdoms became united under one sovereign, Egbert, king of Wessex, and the importance of English history begins.

827.

8. The council of the Wittanagemot was composed of about thirty persons, the most powerful in the kingdom. They might be either laymen or ecclesiastics; and probably their office was rather hereditary than elective. Their consent was necessary to all laws. Their enactments, however, reflect the barbarity of the times.

9. The tranquillity of Egbert's reign was disturbed by the depredations of some of the fiercest and most fearless of barbarians. These were the Norsemen, or Northmen, of the Scandinavian Peninsulas, who are generally known in British history as "Danes," and in French history as "Normans." Under the name of vikings or sea kings they descended upon the coasts of western and southern Europe, "pirates at sea and robbers on land."

10. King Egbert encountered these foes, and obtained victories over them. Still he could not subdue them, and their ships kept bringing new arrivals to the British shores. Under his successor, Ethelwulf, the nation suffered still more from the ravages of the Danes.

11. The Franks were also in association with the warlike tribes of Germany. They derived their name, which signifies *freemen,* from their love of liberty. They made conquests in Gaul in the third century, and were governed by chiefs, or kings, of the family of Mero'vius. His grandson Clovis was chief of a tribe called the Salian, and the founder of the French monarchy. On the death of Clovis, his extensive domin-

481.

ions were divided among his four sons. During the reign of these brothers the dominion of the Franks was extended over Burgundy. The annals of the kingdom present an unvarying scene of enmity, contention, violence, and bloodshed.

12. In France the Merovin'gian dynasty, the degenerate descendants of Clovis, remained upon the throne. In the disorders consequent upon the weakness or minority of these monarchs, the regency, or administration of government, was committed to the mayor of the palace, who combined the offices of judge and of steward of the household. These mayors acquired such an extent of power that the authority of the monarch was little more than nominal. One of these officers, Pep'in D' Heristal', headed the nobles in a contest against the king and the people. After six years of war and confusion he was victorious in the battle of Tes'try. By this he established his authority and made it hereditary. He was succeeded by his son Charles Martel'. It was during his administration that the Saracens conquered France, from the Garonne to the Rhone. Charles collected his warriors and fought with them the great battle of Tours, which lasted seven days. He defeated the invaders with a very great loss, and recovered the provinces. *This battle, in its results, is probably the most important ever fought, influencing not only the destiny of France, but of all Europe, and putting a check to the final progress of the Mahometan religion.* Charles did not assume the name of king, but exercised full power.

687.

714.

732.

13. He was succeeded in the mayoralty by his son Pep'in, who, performing the functions of sovereign, aspired to the royal title. The aid of Zach'ary, bishop of Rome, now known by the appellation of pope, was sought by Pepin. He was not unmindful of his obligations to the pope. In his wars with Astol'phus, king of the Lombards, he conquered from them the Exarchate of Ravenna, which they had wrested from the Greek empire. *This he gave to the pope, who thereby became a temporal sovereign.* The kings of France were recognized as Patricians of Rome.

14. Pepin was succeeded by his sons, Charles and Car'loman. The sovereignty of France could hardly be considered as hereditary at this period, as the consent of the nobles was required to the accession of these princes. The death of Carloman left the whole kingdom to Charles. This prince gave early indica-

768.

tions of those qualities which gained him the name of Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. He found, in the hostilities of Deside'rius against the pope, a pretext for invading the kingdom of Lombardy. Charlemagne crossed the great St. Bernard from Geneva, and successively took Pavia and Verona, in Italy. Lombardy was soon reduced to submission, and the king was made captive. Charlemagne next visited Rome, where he was received by Pope Adrian I with every demonstration of joy, and hailed as the deliverer of the church. He caused himself to be crowned king of Lombardy.

774.

15. The Saxons now extended from Bohemia to the German ocean, and from the Rhine to the Baltic. They had often been forced to pay tribute to the monarchs of France, and as often revolted. Charlemagne made war upon them; but it was not till after thirty years of arduous contest that he reduced them to submission. Wit'ikind, the most valiant and renowned of their chiefs, at length embraced Christianity and resigned his arms. Charlemagne then obliged the Saxon people to receive baptism. He invaded and conquered the Huns and Slavonians. He then turned and attacked the Saracens of Spain, and annexed to his dominions the territory between the Pyrenees and the Ebro. On his return, as the rear of the army, loaded with booty, passed Roncesvalles, his nephew Roland and many of the knights were attacked by the Gascons, and perished in the valley. Charlemagne, after conquering the Lombards, confirmed the gift of his father to the Holy See,[1] adding to it all the cities and islands which had been annexed to the Exarchate. Yet during the life of Charlemagne these dominions were dependent upon his power; and both Ravenna and Rome were numbered in his list of the metropolitan cities of his great empire of the west.

785.

QUESTIONS.—On what occasion did the Romans withdraw from Britain the northern defenses? At what time, and by whom, were the Britons absolved from their allegiance to Rome? Who was Vortigern? What was done in consequence of an invitation from him to his people? What was done by the Saxons? Who now came with sixteen ships? When the Britons found that the Saxons were approaching the island, what was done? Give a further account of Hengist. What was done by Rowena? Who was Arthur? How many years were there of war? Whither were the inhabitants driven? By what names was Ireland known to the ancients?

[1] A See is the territory over which a bishop has ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The See of Rome is called the Holy See.

Was the island included in the Roman empire? What can you say of the life and work of St. Patrick? Why was his mission especially opportune? How was the influence of his work extended in later centuries? What were the kingdoms of the Heptarchy? Give an account of the government of the Saxons. When and under whom was the Heptarchy fused into a single kingdom? Describe its government. Who were the Franks? From whom is their first dynasty named? Give an account of Clovis? What happened on the death of Clovis? What officers in France had set their authority above that of the monarchs? Which of them made the office hereditary? What account can you give of his son? What is said of the battle of Tours? What did Pepin give to the Pope which made him a temporal sovereign? How did Pepin obtain his title to the Exarchate of Ravenna? Who succeeded Pepin? Give an account of Charles. Relate Charlemagne's invasion of the kingdom of Desiderius. Where did he next go?—of what kingdom was he crowned king? Where did the Saxons live at this period? What had been their conduct towards the kings of France? How long did it take Charlemagne to subdue them? What can you relate of Witikind and the Saxon people? What nations east of the Saxons did Charlemagne conquer?—what south of France? What happened at Roncesvalles?

III. Mahomet and His Religion.

1. Mahom'et is one of the most remarkable men who appear on the pages of history. He was born in Mecca, and was a descend-

568. ant of one of the most powerful families in Arabia. Early left an orphan, he was indebted for support to the kindness of an uncle, Abu' Ta'leb, who, to instruct him in the business of a merchant, took him when only thirteen to Syria. He remained with his uncle until the age of twenty-five, when he engaged in the service of Kadi'jah, a rich widow of Mecca, whom he subsequently married, thereby becoming one of the richest men of his native city. In his fortieth year he began his alleged mission, having, by previous sanctity and solitary watching in a cave, prepared the minds of his family to receive it. To Kadijah he first imparted the story, declaring that the angel Ga'briel had appeared to him in a cave and told him that he was the chosen apostle of God. To love is to trust, and Kadijah believed her husband and rejoiced in his glory. Mahomet's next disciples were Ze'id, his servant; Ali', his cousin; and Abu' Be'kr, his friend. Acquainted with the Jewish and Christian systems, Mahomet followed them in the ideas which he inculcated of the Supreme Being. *He acknowledged the veracity of their histories, the truth of their miracles, and the divine character of their teachers.* His system,

he declared, was the perfecting of theirs, he being the Comforter promised by Christ. He spent much time in his cave, and thence issued with the chapters of the Koran, one by one produced, and declared to have been received from the angel Gabriel.

2. After three years' labor Mahomet had only fourteen proselytes. He then invited his numerous relatives to a feast and told them that the Almighty had commissioned him to call them to him. He offered them present and future happiness, and inquired who would be his vicar. Ali rose up, amidst the laughter of the company, and sternly accepted the office. He then began to preach openly to the people, and incensed them by upbraiding them with their idolatry and crimes. He next took the bold measure of asserting that he had been favored with an entrance into the Heavens, where on the throne of God was written, *"There is no God but God, and Mahomet is his prophet."* This became afterwards the creed of his followers.

3. The powerful tribe of Ko'reish were Mahomet's inveterate foes; and they treated his followers so rudely that he led the latter away for a time, but later returned. His last flight
622. was to save his life. Accompanied by his friend Abu Bekr and two other persons, he hastened secretly to Medina. This was Mahomet's lowest point of depression, and is made the era of his followers. His reception at Medina was the renewal of his hopes. The various tribes and inhabitants of Arabia were accustomed to pay their annual devotions in the Caa'ba, or temple of Mecca. In their pilgrimages there, many of the citizens of Medina had listened to the eloquence of Mahomet, and they became converts to his religion. He was now, in his distress, received by them with enthusiasm. Five hundred citizens advanced to meet him; the people unanimously embraced his faith and swore allegiance to his person. Up to this time Mahomet had propagated his religion peaceably. If the people would not hear him, that, he said, was the affair of Him who sent him, not his own. But now that Mahomet felt his power, he pretended to a new command. God had now, he averred, directed him *to propagate his religion by the sword;* and he promised a sensual paradise to those who died fighting in his cause.

4. The first military exploits of Mahomet and his followers were to intercept the caravans of Mecca that were engaged in the Syrian trade. Abu' Soph'ian, the head of the Koreish, and the

mortal foe of Mahomet, on returning from Syria with a wealthy caravan, was attacked and defeated by Mahomet's personal intrepidity. In the following year Abu Sophian attacked Medina with ten thousand men of various nations. Divisions were excited among the discordant tribes; and, a tempest adding to their distress, Medina was saved. Mahomet's arms were next directed against
628. Mecca, but the Koreishites defended it. A treaty was concluded, by which hostilities were to be suspended for ten years, and the Prophet was permitted to enter his native city as a pilgrim. His imposing entrance into the city, his devotion, and his eloquence effected the conversion of multitudes. The truce was broken; Mahomet was victorious, and entered Mecca as a conqueror. The citizens embraced his religion, and were pardoned for past offenses. The submission of Mecca resulted in that of all the neighboring tribes. The idols were now everywhere destroyed,
632. and the faith of Mahomet was established throughout Arabia. At the age of sixty-three he died, having spread the terror of his name from the Euphrates to the Red Sea.

5. Abu Bekr, his friend, was chosen for his successor, receiving the title of caliph or lieutenant. The Arabian tribes were unused to subjection, and on the death of Mahomet they rebelled, but were again reduced to submission; and the caliph's lieutenant, Ca'led, called by the Arabians the "Sword of God," conquered a part of Persia.

6. O'mar succeeded Abu Bekr in the Caliphate. During the first years of the reign of Omar the Syrian war was prosecuted,
632. and successive victories increased the enthusiasm and augmented the number of the faithful. Damascus, Heliopolis, Jerusalem, Aleppo, and Antioch successively fell before the Saracens; and, in seven years after the death of the prophet, the whole province of Syria was added to the empire of the Saracens. In Persia they passed the Ti'gris and took Ctes'iphon, when Yez'degerd, the Persian monarch, fled for protection to the Turks.

7. The invasion of Egypt succeeded. Memphis submitted without resistance, and Alexandria[1] was taken after a siege of
636. fourteen months. The great library of that enlightened city was destroyed. The caliph, when petitioned to spare

[1] The literature and science of the world had for several ages its chief seat in Alexandria. To the Alexandrian school the noble youth of the most refined countries repaired for instruction. The'on, a president of the school, had a daughter, Hypa'tia, whom he found possessed of so extraordinary a genius, that

it, replied, "If these writings of the Greeks agree with the Koran, they are useless, and need not be preserved; if they disagree with it, they are pernicious, and ought to be destroyed." In
645. the reign of the succeeding caliph, Othman, the Saracens extended their conquests into the province of Africa.

8. Dissensions now arose among the Moslems with respect to the rightful succession to the Caliphate. An insurrection resulted in the assassination of Othman; and Ali, the cousin of Mahomet,
655. and one of his first four proselytes, was now elected to the office. The pretensions of Ali, who married Fat'ima, a daughter of the prophet, and of his descendants, the Fatimites, are *the origin of the discord which has ever existed between the Persians and the Turks,* who had now become Mahometans; the former espoused the interests of Ali, and the latter maintained the equal sanctity of the three preceding caliphs. On the accession of Ali the sceptre of the caliphs extended over the kingdoms of Persia, Syria, Arabia, and Egypt.

9. The empire of the Saracens began to be weakened by internal dissensions and civil wars. Ali, though not engaged in the assassination of Othman, reaped the advantages derived from his
661. death. Moawi'yah, son of Abu Sophian, of the family of Om'miyah, to cover his own ambitious purposes, undertook to avenge it. Ali was murdered. Moawiyah succeeded to the Caliphate, which was now changed into an hereditary office.

10. During the reign of Ommi'yades, the lieutenants of the caliphs penetrated the deserts of Africa. The Moorish tribes along the coast, after a short resistance, were conquered, converted, and
713. adopted into the Arabian family. The Saracens entered Spain. In a decisive battle at Xerxes, in Andalusia, they established the Mahometan dominion. Plea'gius, a member of the royal family, finding it impossible to resist the conquerors, retired with a band of followers to the mountains of Asturias, where he established an independent Christian kingdom.

11. The Arabian victors advanced beyond the Pyrenees, bent

he gave her great advantages; and she became, in philosophy, geometry, astronomy, and mathematics, the most learned person of her age. On her father's death she was promoted to succeed him in the presidency. The flower of all the youth of Europe, Asia, and Africa sat at the feet of this beautiful instructress, greedily receiving learning and philosophy from her mouth. Her moral life was pure and blameless, but a party of the people in the interest of Cyril the patriarch, becoming enraged with Orestes the governor, who was the friend of Hypatia, tore her from her chair and brutally murdered her (415), and the school was discontinued.

on the entire conquest of Europe. The valiant Charles Martel of France took the field against them. An ever memorable battle
732. was fought near Tours, where an immense multitude was slain. The Saracens returned to Spain, and it is a remarkable fact that they made no further attacks upon the northern nations.

12. In pursuing the victorious course of the Arabs westward, we have passed by the attempts made by the caliph Moawiyah
661. upon Constantinople. The Moslems attacked it in the summer, and retreated in the winter, for five successive years. At length the Greek fire was invented, "in the moment of fate," by Callinicus of Heliopolis, and brought by him to Con-
667. stantinople. It was a composition of naphtha, pitch, and sulphur, which when once ignited could not be extinguished by water. It adhered to wood and consumed whole fleets. When thrown upon the combatants it insinuated itself between the joints of their armor, and they died a death of torture. It was projected by pistons, "took fire in the air, and approached its victim in the form of fiery dragons." In one winter the caliph lost a fleet and army; and he not only retired, but concluded a peace, agreeing to pay the emperor a tribute for thirty years. *Thus was barred the way of the Musselmans to the conquest of Europe, both in the west and in the east.*

13. Damascus was now the seat of the Caliphate. The contest of the Mahometan faction could be terminated only by a civil war. The dynasty of the Abas'sides was established in the east, and they made Bagdad their seat; but *the unity of the empire was destroyed.*

QUESTIONS.—Give some account of Mahomet and of his parentage. Who was his early protector? Who was Kadijah? At what age, and how, did Mahomet open his alleged mission? How did Kadijah receive his declaration of a divine mission? Who were his next followers? What did he acknowledge concerning the Jewish and Christian religion? In what manner and with what declaration did he bring forth the Koran? What was his first progress in making proselytes? Relate his first preaching to his assembled relatives. How did they receive it? What pretense did he next boldly make? What tribe were the false prophet's foes? What was Mahomet forced to do? What and when was his lowest point of depression? What is this point of time made? What proved the renewal of his hopes? Relate his reception at Medina. How had Mahomet up to this time propagated his religion? What new command did he now pretend to

have received? What were the first military exploits of Mahomet and his followers? Who was Abu Sophian? Relate Abu Sophian's attack on Medina. Relate Mahomet's return to Mecca. How was Mahomet's religion extended soon after? How far at his death? Give an account of Mahomet's successor. What war was carried on in Syria? Who succeeded Abu Bekr? What places had the Saracens conquered in seven years from Mahomet's death? What was their progress in Persia? What was the progress of the Saracen arms among the cities? What became of the great Alexandrian library? What had Alexandria been for some past ages? What remarkable woman flourished there? (See note.) What conquest was begun in the reign of Othman? Relate the manner of the accession of Ali. What dissension arose respecting the succession of the caliphate? How far did the caliphate now extend? Who was Moawiyah? How did Ali come by his death? Who succeeded, and what changes occurred? What occurred during the reign of the Ommiyades? Give some account of the Saracen invasion of Spain. On what were the Saracens now bent? Relate where, and by whom, they received a memorable check. Relate the attacks of the Saracens on Constantinople. What remarkable agent saved the city? By whom was it invented—what its effect? What was the seat of the Caliphate at this time? Where did Abassides fix the seat of government?

Mediaeval History.

I. The Empire and the Papacy.

1. At the coronation of Charlemagne, Pope Leo III, after placing the crown upon that chieftain's head, saluted him with the title "Emperor of the Romans." Charlemagne had quelled the barbarous nations of Europe, with the exception of the Danes, or Normans, and his empire comprised France, Germany, Italy, and the north of Spain. From the east, Irene, empress at Constantinople, sought his friendship; and even the Caliph of Bagdad, the princely Haroun al Raschid, entered into a correspondence with him, and sent him the keys of the Holy Sepulchre of Jerusalem. Charlemagne, though a barbarian who at first could not write his name, but "signed his treaties with the hilt of his sword, and enforced them with its point," had yet great sympathy with learned men. After he had become a conqueror he took as a master in certain sciences Al'cuin, an English ecclesiastic, and he founded the University of Paris, the first institution of its kind in Europe.

800.

2. Louis, surnamed from meekness "le Debonnair'," was ill-qualified to govern the great empire to which he succeeded on the death of his father. Bernard, son of Pepin, Charlemagne's eldest son, had been previously placed on the throne of Italy. He now revolted, claiming that, since he was the son of an elder brother, his right to the empire was superior to that of his uncle. Bernard was made prisoner by Louis. Seized with remorse for his cruelty to his nephew, Louis requested the clergy to condemn him to penance; and they gladly seized this opportunity of humbling the civil power at the feet of the ecclesiastical.

3. Meanwhile the birth of a son, Charles the Bald, by a second marriage, made Louis desirous of another division of his dominions, which should give this son an inheritance with the other brothers. The three openly rebelled against their father. Pope Gregory IV joined the party of Lothaire, who was proclaimed emperor. Lothaire

grasped at the whole empire. His brothers united against him; and the blood of thousands flowed to gratify the ambition and hatred of men who should have shown to each other only kindness and affection.

4. The civil war was succeeded by a negotiation, in which a new division of the empire was made. Lothaire, with the imperial title, was left in possession of Italy and of the northeastern part of France, known by the name of Austra'sia. To Charles the Bald were assigned Neu'stria and Aquitaine', while Louis retained possession of Germany. Thus fell the empire of Charlemagne. Divided among his grandsons, and sub-divided among their successors, its several portions became the scene of anarchy.

841.

5. The Normans, or Danes, took advantage of these disturbances and spread devastation in the dominions of Charles the Bald, even to the neighborhood of Paris. Lothaire, the emperor, in his declining days, divided his dominions between his sons, and sought by retirement and penance to expiate the sins of his former life. His eldest son succeeded to the imperial honors under the title of Louis II.

6. Louis of Germany governed his dominions with considerable ability. On his death they were divided between his three sons. Car'loman governed Bavaria; Louis, Saxony; and Charles, Suabia. Louis III, emperor and king of Italy, dying without sons, the pope espoused the interest of Louis' uncle, Charles the Bald, who now received at his hands the imperial crown. By virtue of his authority as emperor, Charles was compelled to cross the Alps for the protection of Italy, which was invaded by the Saracens; and during this expedition he died.

7. The successors of Charles are little worthy of a place in history. His son Louis the Stammerer reigned but a few months, and was succeeded by his two sons Louis and Carloman. The death of these princes while their brother Charles the Simple was yet a minor transferred the crown of France to Charles the Fat, son of Louis, the German king who had inherited the possessions of his brothers and had already obtained the imperial crown. Thus under this monarch *was nearly reunited the empire of Charlemagne.* Charles's incapacity governing it, however, was soon apparent. The Normans again appeared, and besieged Paris for two years. The inefficiency of

879.

884.

Charles, who engaged to pay money to the Normans on condition of their departure, displeased his subjects, and he was deposed.

888. Charles the Simple was declared king. The Germans chose for their king, Arnold, an illegitimate descendant of Charlemagne.

8. The barons obtained from the king a decree making their estates and titles hereditary to their families, and *this is considered the beginning of modern nobility.* They were also permitted to fortify their castles, which Charlemagne had prohibited, but which the attacks of the Normans rendered necessary. In process of time, however, this, with other measures, *left to the nobles merely a nominal dependence on the crown;* and they exercised within their respective domains, *the rights of sovereign princes;* and France was filled with the miseries arising from their continual depredations upon each other.

9. The Normans, or Danes, made a new incursion, and spread devastation far and wide, plundering even the churches, and carrying

905. terror and dismay into the remotest parts of the country. Charles, unable to repel the invaders, *ceded to them the province of Nuestria, thereafter called Normandy.*

10. The Normans became converts to Christianity, and Rollo was baptized, receiving the name of Robert. He adopted the feudal system, dividing Normandy into large shares among his chief captains, on condition of their doing homage to him and bringing to the field at his call a stipulated number of followers. These chief officers divided, each among his own favorites, the remainder of the land thus assigned them, and the recipients were to furnish soldiers to these chiefs, as the chiefs themselves were to the sovereign, who in Normandy received the title of duke. In the process of time the *feudal system* became exceedingly oppressive to the serfs, or "villeins," as the lowest class were denominated; and the former inhabitants of the conquered countries were always of this lowest class. Their condition was essentially that of slaves, as they were liable to be sold with the land. However, they could be transferred only with the soil; hence families were not liable to be forcibly disunited.

11. *Only a shadow of royalty remained to the degraded descendants of Charlemagne.* Many of the nobles possessed more

987. resources and greater power than the monarch. Hugh the Great, son of the duke of Brittany, put up kings

and put them down at his pleasure. At length his son Hugh Capet in 989 added to his power the title of king of France, and was the founder of the Capetian dynasty.

12. Five nations, each governed by its own laws and by its own duke, composed at this time the German Confederation. Among their princes were able men, and they determined to choose one of their number as emperor, in a pressing emergency, the terrible Huns having invaded their region. Assembling in a diet at Worms, the electors of these German states *conferred the imperial dignity upon Conrad, the duke of Pomerania.*

13. The German sovereigns now took the lead in the politics of Europe. From this time powerful leaders were elected emperors,
911. and claimed to represent the Holy Roman Empire which Charlemagne had founded. *For a thousand years this continued.* It has been wittily said that the Holy Roman Empire was not holy, not Roman, and not an empire. In the history of Europe from this time it is usually known simply as "the empire," and its sovereign as "the emperor." The emperors were never elected by the people, but by the rulers of the various German states, who bore various titles. These rulers came to be known generally as "electors."

14. The reign of Conrad was disquieted by the rebellion of some of the powerful nobles of the empire, and by the invasion of the Huns, who spread themselves over the ancient Pannonia, thence called Hungary. The German states, however, were the scene of the most destructive inroads of this fierce people. Conrad became weary of his cares of state, and recommended for his successor a
920. rival who had sought to deprive him of his power, and who seemed better fitted to rule. This was Henry the Fowler, duke of Saxony.

15. Henry gained a decided victory over the Huns. Though this did not effectually subdue them, it did prevent them from committing further depredations.

16. Otho the Great succeeded his distinguished father, Henry the Fowler. He rendered Bohemia tributary to the empire, and
936. compelled the inhabitants to become Christians. He encountered the Huns near Augsburg, and defeated them. He invaded France and Denmark; and wherever he went he made the will of others bend to his own.

17. From the division of Charlemagne's empire, Italy had

been governed by native princes. Of these perhaps the best known is Berenger, duke of Friuli, who became king of Italy. Otho marched into Italy, subdued Berenger, made himself master of the country, deposed the pope, John XII (who had favored Berenger), and placed Leo VIII in the papal chair. Otho revived a claim that he and his successors *should have the power of naming the pope and of giving investiture to bishops.* On the return of Otho to Germany his Italian subjects again revolted; and on the death of Leo they contested the right of the emperor to nominate a successor to the papacy. Otho's arms, however, again compelled their submission, and from that time his reign was tranquil. He was the most powerful monarch of his time.

964.

18. Otho I was succeeded by his son Otho II. During his reign the most disorderly and turbulent proceedings were witnessed at Rome, where at one time several popes were elected, each anathematizing and excommunicating the others. Otho III, although a minor at the time of his father's death, had by his influence been elected to succeed him. Otho, when he became of age, soon quieted the disturbances made by the Italians, and restored Pope Gregory, whom they had deposed. Otho expelled the Saracens from the south of Italy, where for forty years they had made destructive ravages. Henry II, grandson of Otho II, obtained the election. At his death an assembly of princes, after six weeks' deliberation, elected as his successor, Conrad II, surnamed the Salic, duke of Franconia. During his reign the kingdom of Burgundy was annexed to the empire.

973.

1002.

19. He was succeeded by his son Henry III, who extended the prerogatives of the crown and exercised a more absolute power than any former German monarch. His nobles murmured; and after his death their enmity was manifested in the course of the war with the popes, called *the War of the Investitures.*

1039.

20. The former Roman emperors had exercised the power of nominating bishops and abbots, and of giving them *investiture* by the ring and crosier. Otho the Great and his successors had claimed this power. Pope Alexander II had published a decree during the life of Henry III, forbidding this investiture; and the doctrine was now maintained that, as the spiritual power was superior to the temporal, the bishops and abbots received their authority from

God, and not from the emperor; that the emperor was to hold *his* investiture from the pope, and his authority under him.

21. The famous Hildebrand was now in the papal chair, with the title of Gregory VII. He despatched a legate to the emperor, forbidding the latter to exercise the rights of investiture. Henry treated his messenger with contempt, convoked an assembly of his princes and ecclesiastics, and declared Gregory a usurper of the papacy. Gregory, fully aware of the disaffection of the German nobles, pronounced a sentence of excommunication against Henry, absolving Henry's subjects from their allegiance, and depriving him of his imperial authority. The German nobles, thus encouraged, revolted; and the German clergy, who had just before declared Gregory an usurper, now espoused his cause.

22. Henry, surrounded with danger, saw no safety but in appeasing the wrath of the pope. With this view he passed the Alps and, accompanied by only a few domestics, pro-
1076. ceeded to Canos'sa, where Gregory then was, and presented himself as a penitent at the gates of the fortress. The monarch was admitted only within the outer court. There, wrapped in sackcloth, with his feet bare, he was detained three days in the month of January before the haughty pontiff would admit him to his presence. The penance of Henry, and his promise to submit in all things, at length procured him absolution.

23. The reconciliation, however, was short. The action of the pope had alienated the minds of the Italian princes, and a strong party was formed in Henry's favor. He renewed the war; but, while he was engaged with the Italians against the pope, his German subjects revolted. A second excommunication was thundered against him by Gregory, who again deposed him, and declared Rodolph, duke of Swabia, emperor. Henry augmented his party in Germany; and, convening a few bishops who adhered to him, he deposed Gregory, and appointed another pope. He defeated and slew Rodolph, and the followers dispersed. Henry then returned to Italy, laid siege to Rome, and continued it for two years, when at length the city was carried by assault. Gregory escaped, but shortly afterwards died. Henry procured the consecration of Clement III. After the emperor's return to Germany his armies deposed Clement, and elected Victor, whose early death made way for Urban II. Urban renewed the war of the investitures, and embroiled Henry in a quarrel with his son Conrad.

This brings the history of the empire to the period when the council of Clermont decided upon the first Crusade.

QUESTIONS.—When did Charlemagne receive the imperial crown, and from whom? What nations had he conquered? What was the extent of his empire? What sovereigns of the east honored him? What present did he receive from a Caliph? What can be said of Charlemagne in regard to science and literature? Give an account of Charlemagne's successor. For what purpose did he make a second division of his dominions? How did Lothaire, Louis, and Charles the Bald divide the empire among themselves? Did the empire of Charlemagne longer exist? What barbarians invaded France?—what portion of France? Who was the successor of Lothaire? Give some account of the affairs of Germany? What is further said of Charles the Bald? Give some account of his successors. Under whom was the empire nearly reunited? Who saved Paris from the incursions of the Normans? Of what is this considered to be the beginning? What was the condition of the kingdom? Give an account of the invasion of the Normans, or Danes. Repeat the main features of the feudal system adopted by Rollo. Did this tend to equality in the circumstances of men, or what was its tendency? What was the condition of Charlemagne's descendants? What father and son supplanted the Carlovingian monarchs and founded a new dynasty? What was it called? Explain the condition of the Germans, and what they now did in reference to the sovereign.

II. England to the Time of the Conquest.

1. In the reign of Ethelwolf, the successor of Egbert, the ravages of the Danes upon the British coast continued; and in the successive reigns of Ethelbald, Ethelwolf, and Ethelred they did not cease. The great and good king Alfred fol-
871. lowed, and the sea rovers were more formidable than ever before. Alfred gained some advantages over them, and they stipulated that they would retire; but no dependence was to be placed upon their promises. On receiving reinforcements, they violated their treaty. The young king fought eight battles with them in one year, but they swarmed upon the coast in ever increasing numbers.

2. The Saxons believed themselves abandoned of Heaven, and Alfred sought in vain to rally them. He then took the character of a peasant, determining to reserve himself for more favorable times. Disguised as a wandering minstrel, and bearing a harp,
877. he entered the camp of the Danes; and, while his music entertained them, they unsuspiciously suffered him to observe their careless security. He also learned that they were

about to celebrate a festival. Quitting the hostile camp, he revealed himself publicly to his rejoicing subjects, who had thought him dead. They collected from all quarters, attacked the astonished Danes on the day of their celebration, and gained an easy but complete victory.

3. Alfred granted the Danes permission to settle in Northumberland and East Anglia, on condition of their being governed by his laws, and embracing Christianity. They were accordingly baptized; and the king himself stood godfather for Guthrum, their chief. The civil and military institutions of Alfred have acquired for him the admiration of posterity. The love of letters manifested in his youth continued through life, and, though burdened with the cares of government, and harassed with vexatious wars, he yet found time at the age of thirty-eight to study the Latin language, and to write several works of reputation. He founded the university of Oxford, and he formed a system of jurisprudence, which is supposed to be the foundation of English common law. He established a navy, which was the beginning of the greatest naval power that the world has ever witnessed. In short, it was

900. Alfred who *laid the foundation of the British monarchy.* Nor do we find one act of inhumanity or vice, one habit of indolence or of irregularity, to sully the fair fame of his public virtue. He had fought fifty-six battles; but his wars were those of defense, and were unstained by ambition and cruelty. Alfred died in 900.

4. The three immediate successors of Alfred were able princes, who held the government with a firm hand. These were Edward the Elder, his son and successor, who built many fortresses and subjugated the Danes; Athelstan, natural son of Edward, who is much renowned in history for the victories he obtained over these

940. and other barbarians by whom the kingdom was assailed; and Edmund the Elder, who conquered Northumberland from the Britons and bestowed it on Malcolm, king of Scotland, on condition that the latter should do homage to him, and defend the northern frontier from the Danes. The reign of Edred, his brother and successor, is memorable for the establishment of monasteries in England, and for the influence which Dunstan,[1] abbot of Glastonbury, possessed over this superstitious monarch.

[1] This monk concealed great ambition under the cloak of sanctity. The ignorance and incredulity of those times cannot be better illustrated than by the stories which he made the people believe. In his miserable cell, the Devil, affronted as Dunstan said by the holy mortifications of the monk, annoyed him

5. Edred left the throne to Edwy, a prince of seventeen, who was soon dethroned. Edgar, a boy of thirteen, brother to Edwy,
985. succeeded him. Edgar, as he grew to manhood, saw the difficulty of the situation, and in reality proved the master spirit of his kingdom; but his character presents us greatness without virtue. Flattering the monks, he preserved their favor; and unrestrained by moral principle, he violated, in the pursuit of pleasure, all laws, human and divine. He built and supported a powerful navy, which he divided into three squadrons, commanding each to make by turns the circuit of his dominions, thus keeping the seamen in practice, and intimidating the Danes.

6. Edward II, son of Edgar, was raised by Dunstan to the throne, to receive the crown. He obtained the surname of the
972. martyr, for he was murdered. The crown fell to Ethelred. The Danes, with fresh hopes and recruited
978. strength, again entered England, and the weak monarch gave them money to depart. He then gave orders for
1002. a massacre of all the Danes in his dominions; and the order was executed with the most barbarous inhumanity. Among the number was Gunhilda, sister of Sweyn, the powerful king of Denmark. The fierce wrath of Sweyn was enkindled. He
1013. collected a formidable armament, landed in the west of England, and carried fire and sword through the land. The timid Ethelred fled to Robert, Duke of Normandy. Sweyn died before he had time to establish himself in his conquered dominions.

7. Ethelred returned to England, but found Canute, the son and successor of Sweyn of Denmark, a powerful adversary. The
1016. death of Ethelred left his eldest son Edmund Ironsides to carry on the war. Edmund, though brave, was unable to resist the warlike Danes, surrounded as he was by the treacherous machinations of his own subjects. He was defeated in a battle, and compelled to relinquish a part of his territories. Canute received the northern part of the kingdom, while Edmund was left in possession of the south. But this monarch, worthy of a better fate, was assassinated by two of his rebellious subjects in the interest of Canute, *who then seized on the dominions of Edmund, and became sovereign of the entire kingdom.*

by frequent conflicts. At length he came one day in the shape of a woman. St. Dunstan seized him by the nose with a pair of red-hot pincers. Satan roared and bellowed, and after this never dared show his face to the valiant monk.

8. Canute sent back a part of his followers into Denmark, and restored the Saxon laws and customs. After this he returned to Denmark, and conquered Sweden and Norway; then he returned to reside in England. On his death his sons Harold and Hardicanute successively obtained the crown of England. On the death

1042. of the latter *the English threw off the Danish yoke,* and recalled Edward, surnamed, on account of his piety, "the Confessor." He was the son of Ethelred, and had been under the protection of the Duke of Normandy. The reign of Edward was disturbed by rebellions among his nobility, some of whom openly aspired to the crown.

9. The death of Edward the Confessor, who was the last of the Saxon kings, left the succession to the English throne open to contention. Edgar surnamed Atheling (the illustrious), a son of Edmund Ironsides, presented his claim, and also William, duke of Normandy, natural son of Duke Robert. Before the question

1062. of right was decided, Harold, son of the powerful Earl Godwin, usurped the sovereignty, and obtained the allegiance of the nation. William of Normandy was distinguished for courage, ambition, and military skill. His court was thronged by youth of different countries, eager for military enterprise.

10. William dutifully applied to the pope, Alexander II, for permission to conquer England. The pope gave him the country, and sent him his blessing, with a ring containing one of St. Peter's hairs. William no longer hesitated, but embarked his army, and landed at Pevensey. Harold was in the north, where he had just defeated the forces of the king of Norway, who had invaded his kingdom, when he learned that the Duke of Normandy had landed

1066. with a powerful army. Elated with his recent victory, he hastened to the south. Deaf to remonstrances, at Hastings he risked his kingdom, though with an inferior force, upon the success of a single battle, which he lost, and with it he lost his crown and life.

11. William proceeded to London. Before he reached the city, he was met by a deputation who offered him the crown. After six months he revisited Normandy. The rapacity of his army produced a revolt. William hastened his return, and found that the insurrection was headed by the most powerful nobles of the realm, aided by the kings of Scotland and Denmark. He crushed the

EUROPE
ABOUT THE TIME OF
THE FIRST CRUSADE (1097)
First Crusade
Third
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
RUSSIA
LAND OF THE PETCHENEGS
LITHUANIA
POLAND
GERMANY
HUNGARY
SERVIA
MACEDONIA
ROMAN EMPIRE
LANDS OF THE SELJUKIAN TURKS
SULTANATE OF ICONIUM
CALIPHATE OF CAIRO
ARABIA
AFRICA
ALMORAVIDES
FRANCE
ENGLAND
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
WALES
DENMARK
GOTHLAND
NORWAY
SWEDEN
Novgorod
Kief
Constantinople
Nicæa
Trebizond
Sinope
Georgia
Armenia
Edessa
Antioch
Tripoli
Acre
Damascus
Jerusalem
Jaffa
Damietta
Alexandria
Cairo
Rhodes
Cyprus
Crete
Malta
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Naples
Rome
Venice
Genoa
Milan
Paris
Cologne
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Vienna
Prague
Lisbon
Toledo
Valencia
Granada
Seville
Tunis
Syracuse
Tripoli
Richard's Fleet
Richard (land Fleet)
Philip Augustus
Longitude 0 10 East from Greenwich
20 10 0 10 20 30 40
50 40 30

rebellion, and found pretenses to enrich his Norman followers, bestowing on them the estates of the rebels.

12. William *introduced the feudal system into England.* He divided the kingdom into large landed estates, or baronies, which were distributed among the Norman chiefs, none of the English being permitted to hold those of the first rank. *The old English nobility were therefore degraded, and the lower classes of the conquered became serfs.* William caused a survey of all the lands in England to be made and recorded in what is termed "the Domesday Book." He obliged the people to extinguish their lights at the ringing of the curfew, or evening bell.

QUESTIONS.—Give an account of the Anglo-Danish invaders of England. Under what kings did they continue their incursions? Give an account of Alfred's changes of fortune. Where did he permit the Danes to settle, and on what condition? What did Alfred accomplish to merit the admiration of posterity? Do you find any vice to counterbalance his accomplishments and virtues? You have now read the history of many sovereigns; have you found this a common case? What were the names and characters of the three immediate successors of Alfred? Who was Dunstan? Give an account of the reign of Edgar. What was Dunstan engaged in bringing about? Who avenged the death of Gunhilda? To whom did Ethelred flee? Give an account of Canute. What did he do in respect to the Saxon customs? What kingdoms did he conquer? Who succeeded Canute in the sovereignty of England? What was done on the death of Hardicanute? What was the parentage of Edward the Confessor?—of what dynasty is he the last king? Who presented claims to the throne at his death? Who was acknowledged king? For what was William distinguished? What species of persons thronged his court? When he invaded England, at what place did he land? Where was Harold? Give an account of the battle of Hastings and its results. Relate the circumstances of the early part of his reign. In following out the feudal system, whom did William make the chief barons? Who became serfs? What measures did he take concerning the landed property in England?

III. Chivalry and the Crusades.

1. The simple faith of the early Christians was exchanged for the rites and ceremonies of later days; and relics, and pilgrimages made to holy places, became objects of eager desire, and substitutes for personal piety. Of all pilgrimages, that to the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem was the most frequently made, and was considered the most meritorious. It was performed by multitudes of devotees from every part of Europe.

After the Holy Land fell into the hands of the Saracens, these pilgrimages, though attended with greater difficulty and danger, still continued. The caliph Haroun al Raschid afforded protection to the Christian pilgrims, even presenting to Charlemagne the keys of the Holy Sepulchre. His successors, the Abassides, pursued the same tolerant system. But when the Fatimites of Africa attained possession of Palestine and Syria, the pilgrims suffered from them every persecution.

2. The institution of chivalry, so intimately associated with the feudal system and the Crusades, arose in Normandy in the eleventh century. There the oppressions of the castled barons were severely felt by the great mass of the people. Those petty princes were perpetually leading their retainers to war, and outrage and licentiousness filled the land, while no government existed that could protect the weak against the strong. Then a spirit of virtuous indignation at oppression, of deep faith in Christian principles, and of newly awakened admiration for the female sex, induced a band of noble-minded young men to dedicate themselves in the fear of God to right the wrongs which existed around them. The priesthood sanctioned their resolutions, and the first order of knighthood began. It soon became an honor to which even princes aspired. A conscious loftiness of purpose, and a firm persuasion of the protection of Heaven, lifted the knights almost above humanity. They neglected nothing that could increase and preserve their physical powers. They inured themselves from youth to hardships and privations, which made them strong and hardy. For self-preservation against the arms in use, they encased themselves in steel armor so heavy that a man of moderate strength at this day could scarcely lift its weight.

The true knight possessed the perfection of manners—courtesy combined with candor. To maintain truth and justice in word and act was a part of his vow. He was not ashamed of his religion or of his love, and never spoke lightly of either. Womanhood, being now beheld in its proper niche—its character completely changed by Christianity—seemed invested with a new and holy light. Men of finer mold, such as knighthood found or produced, rendered to woman almost an idolatrous worship.

3. Centuries later, when knighthood had outlived its usefulness, and had become identified with excessive and formal politeness that was artificial and meaningless, and with all that was

artificial, unnatural, and absurd in a more realistic age, it was "laughed out of Europe" and out of existence by the humor of the immortal "Don Quixote," of Cervantes. But in its beginnings it answered a real need in the life of Europe. The king was without gunpowder and without the means of enforcing the laws. He struck the kneeling youth with his sword, and dubbed him a knight; and the knight went forth to challenge to a duel every oppressor of the poor and weak, to defend the oppressed, and to punish the wicked in high places. Intrenched in his castle, the wrong-doer was not secure, for the taunt of cowardice compelled him to meet in arms the defender of the wronged and oppressed.

4. Jerusalem, the cradle of Christianity, suffered cruel insults at the hands of the Mahometans. Hakem, third of the Fatimite caliphs of Egypt, himself aspiring to the honors of a god, razed the Church of the Resurrection in 1009, and spared no pains to destroy the very rock cave which was pointed out as the Holy Sepulchre. The Turks then seized the city; Christian pilgrims, flocking thither in crowds of thousands during the eleventh century, were cruelly maltreated by them. No Christian could pass the gates without first paying a piece of gold to these Tartar conquerors. Every day brought back to Europe weary palmers, who had been scoffed at and spit upon by the Moslems. This was borne for a time, but soon grew intolerable; and the indignation, burning deep and long in the heart of Christendom, found its first great utterance in the wild eloquence of Peter the Hermit.

5. This man, probably a native of Amiens, was a soldier in his youth. Upon the death of his wife, he retired broken-hearted to a hermit's cell, from which, however, his innate love of change drove him a pilgrim to the Holy Land. Returning thence full of anger at the degradation of the sacred spot, he obtained leave from Pope Urban II to call all true Christians to arms; and as he passed through Italy and France, a fleshless spectre, clad in mean raiment, with bare head and feet, and staggering under a heavy crucifix, his fierce war-cry woke an echo in millions of hearts.

Within the same year, two general councils were called by the pope—one at Placentia, the other at Clermont, in Auvergne. At
1095. the latter, both the pope and the hermit spoke in words of fire. With one voice all who heard cried out in the old French, *"Dieu le veult!"*—"It is the will of God!" and few

there were who left the old market-place on that day without a red cross on the shoulder, to mark them as soldiers in the sacred cause.

THE FIRST CRUSADE.

(1096-1099.)

6. The first move of the Crusaders was a mad and aimless rush. A rabble of three hundred thousand, comprising not men alone, but women and children, and even some stricken with deadly disease, gathered under Peter, and a soldier called Walter the Penniless. They passed through Germany with no achievement but the murder and robbery of thousands of Jews. Their plundering roused the rage of the Hungarians and Bulgarians, who set upon them; and it was with sorely thinned and broken ranks that they reached Constantinople, where Alexis reigned. He persuaded them to fix their camp upon the Asiatic shore of the Bosphorus. Moving thence towards Nice, in Bithynia, they were, all but a very few, cut to pieces by the Turks.

The great captain of the first Crusade (War of the Cross) was Godfrey of Bouillon, or Boulogne, the Duke of Basse-Lorraine. There were, besides, among the chiefs, Robert of Normandy, Hugh, the brother of the French king, Stephen of Blois, and Bohemund of Tarentum. Nine months were consumed in mustering the great army of more than half a million, and leading it by different routes to Constantinople. Having crossed the strait, the Crusaders moved, with horns blowing and drums beating, upon Nice, which fell after a siege of seven weeks.

7. At Dorylæum was fought one of the greatest cavalry battles the world has seen. Considerably more than one hundred thousand Turkish horse, with curved sabres and light *djereeds,* were scattered before the lances of the Christian knights. Soliman, Sultan of the Turks, fell back in rapid flight. But all this glory was purchased by much suffering. Thirst was the worst foe that befell the Christians; we are told that once, when water was found after days of scorching drought, three hundred of them drank till they died. They threaded the rocky wilds of Taurus, fainting with the weight of their armor under the burning sun; and at last saw, set in the emerald meadows that line the Orontes, the fair turrets of the Syrian Antioch.

Here the war raged anew. The Christian knights vied with one another in valorous deeds. Godfrey one day cut his foe in two; one half fell into the river, the other sat still on horseback—"by which blow," quaintly says Robert the Monk, "one Turk was made two Turks." The siege was pushed on amidst the worst miseries of winter, famine, and disorganization, until, by the treachery of a Syrian officer, the Crusaders were enabled, one dark, stormy night, to surprise the town. A Saracen army, led by Kerboga, Prince of Mosul, advancing to the rescue, was then repulsed with great slaughter; and Bohemund, the son of Robert Guiscard, was made prince of the captured city.

8. After a delay of months at Antioch, the Crusaders, now reduced to twenty thousand foot and fifteen hundred horse, moved southward towards Jerusalem. They ought to have reduced the great stronghold of Acre, with its vast granaries, as they passed; but, eager to crown their enterprise with the capture of the Holy City, they contented themselves with extorting a promise from the Emir of Acre, that, if Jerusalem fell, he would give them up his keys. At last the capital of Palestine, lovely even in her desolation, rose in their view. The knights, springing from their saddles, wet the turf with tears of mingled joy and grief. Barefooted and weeping the little band advanced. Under a sky of burning copper, with no water in the pools and brooks, they fought for five long weeks before Godfrey and his stormers stood victorious within the walls. The massacre of seventy thousand Moslems, and the burning of the Jews in their synagogue, stained the glory of the conquerors.

1099.

9. A kingdom of Jerusalem being founded, Godfrey was elected king. But modestly and wisely he chose rather the humbler title of Baron of the Holy Sepulchre. The opening of his reign was signalized by the battle of Ascalon, in which he defeated the Sultan of Egypt. After this victory, which closed the first Crusade, many of the actors in the great drama went home. Among these was Peter the Hermit, whose checkered life found a close in the abbey of Huy, founded by himself on the bank of the Meuse.

The last great act of Godfrey's life was the enactment of a code of feudal laws, called the "Assize of Jerusalem." He had scarcely shaped these, and seen their earliest working, when death cut him off, in the first year of his reign.

THE SECOND CRUSADE.

(1147-1149.)

10. Before the second Crusade began, forty-eight years passed, during which the kingdom of Jerusalem was upheld chiefly by two orders of military monks—the Hospitalers and the Templars. The former, whose scarlet surcoat was embroidered with a silver cross, derived their name from their being at first attached to a hospital, dedicated to St. John. The Templars, afterwards so haughty and powerful, calling themselves so from their residence close to the site of Solomon's Temple, sprang from a little society of nine knights, who bound themselves by an oath to pass chaste and humble lives, in constant war against the enemies of the faith. They received the sanction of Baldwin II in 1118.

When the news reached Europe that Edessa, beyond Euphrates, one of the strong outposts of the faith against the encroaching Moslems, had fallen before Zenghi, Prince of Mosul, the smoldering fire began to blaze anew. St. Bernard took the place which had been filled by Peter the Hermit.

Born in Burgundy in 1091, Bernard became a monk in early youth. As Abbot of Clairvaux, in Champagne, he was soon noted for his austerity and abstinence. Coarse bread, beech-nuts, and even the leaves of trees, formed at one time the only food of his monks and himself. But the spirit within lived and glowed, in spite of pale cheek and wasted frame. And when, on the hillside at Vezelai, in 1146, he addressed a countless crowd of French knights and nobles, urging them to another Crusade, the old war-cry, "It is the will of God," rang through the air, and so great was the rush for the Cross that he and his priests were obliged to tear up their vestments in order to supply the eager soldiery with the sacred symbol.

His eloquence enlisted in the war Louis VII of France and Conrad III of Germany. Their combined armies, amounting to three hundred thousand, took the same route as the first Crusaders had taken—through Germany and Hungary right on to Constantinople, and so over the straits into Asia. But the schemes of Manuel, the emperor of the East, who was especially unfriendly to Conrad, so far reduced the strength of the Germans by cutting off their supplies, that they fell an easy prey to the Saracens among

the mountains of Cappadocia. Conrad returned in despair to Constantinople.

11. The troops of Louis, passing in the winter of 1148 to the banks of the Meander, gained a slight triumph over the Saracens. But this success was soon eclipsed by a decided check near Laodicea. When they found the gates of Attalia, where they had hoped to find a refuge, shut against them, the heroic army, lessening every day, struggled on, storm-beaten and famine-worn, to Antioch. The entry of the two monarchs into Jerusalem—Conrad had now joined Louis—was a gleam of bright promise, reviving the hope of the Crusaders. But their first undertaking, the siege of Damascus, proved a miserable failure, and the second Crusade closed in gloom. Nearly forty years elapsed before the third began.

THE THIRD CRUSADE.

(1189-1192.)

12. When the news came that Jerusalem had fallen before Saladin, the great Sultan, and that the golden cross, which had glittered for eighty-eight years on the Mosque of Omar, marking its transformation into a Christian church, had been trampled in the streets, Europe for the third time girt herself for war.

1187.

First, from the Italian ports there sailed out a large fleet, thronged with eager soldiers, who at once upon their arrival proceeded to aid the Christians in the siege of Acre, which had yielded to Saladin.

13. But a greater movement followed. Three great western princes took the Cross—Richard I of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederic Barbarossa (Redbeard) of the empire. A tax, called Saladin's tithe, was laid upon Christendom to meet the expenses of the war. As was usual in all the Crusades, complete absolution from sin was promised to every soldier who struck a blow at the infidel.

While Richard and Philip were filling their purses and mustering their armies, Frederic, starting from Ratisbon, pushed by the usual land-route to Adrianople, crossed the Hellespont, and pierced right through Asia Minor, routing the Turks, and conquering Iconium. But his career of victory was stayed in Cilicia, where he died, while bathing one summer day

1189.

in the river Selef. A remnant of his army—some five thousand ragged and footsore men—reached the camp of the besiegers before Acre.

The siege of that stronghold was pushed on in spite of terrific losses. For two long years a vague hope of aid from Europe upheld the hearts of the Christians. The Turkish garrison was renewed again and again, whenever the sea was left open. Nine battles were fought under the shadow of Mount Carmel with changing success. Thousands on thousands of the crusading soldiery laid down their lives before the ramparts; but still the camp was filled with new hosts, burning with martial fury.

14. The armies of Richard and Philip, amounting to one hundred thousand, were transported by sea to the Holy Land, the former sailing from Marseilles, the latter from Genoa. They spent the winter together at Messina in Sicily, not, indeed, on the most friendly terms. Richard delayed, besides, at Cyprus, where he was married. He dethroned Isaac, king of that island, for treating some of his shipwrecked sailors badly. It was, therefore, nearly a year after their setting out that the royal warriors appeared before Acre; Philip first, Richard shortly afterwards. New vigor stirred in the besiegers; and Saladin must have trembled for his hold upon the key of Syria, when he saw the plain whitened with a new camp of many thousand men. One glimpse of the great Saracen's character must not be passed by. Even at so great a crisis, this generous foe sent frequent presents of pears and snow, to cool the fever of which Richard and Philip lay sick in their tents. Ere long the broken ramparts of the city yielded to the Crusaders, and the sultan fell back towards the south.

1190.

15. The story of the Crusades, and of this one especially, has been colored with the gayest tints of romance; and we are apt to be dazzled by a deceptive glare in reading of the noble achievements of the soldiers of the Cross. The truth is, that the crusading armies were filled with the worst ruffians in Europe. There were, no doubt, noble exceptions. But very few were inspired by motives of real piety. The hope of plunder and a reckless love of change were the mainsprings of the war. The Cross met the eye everywhere throughout the camp, on banners, shields, and surcoats, sparkling over tent-doors, and shapen into the hilts of swords; but it was not in the hearts of the soldiery; and this

being so, it is no wonder that the worst vices were rampant among them, and that all shame was cast aside.

16. Soon after the fall of Acre, Philip returned home. Richard then pushed southward along the sea-coast, fighting his way for eleven days amid the unceasing rattle of the brass kettle-drums, that called up new hosts of Saracens to the front. He found Joppa and Ascalon dismantled. In the spring he advanced within twenty miles of Jerusalem, but turned away from what most likely would have been the crowning achievement of the war. The sad havoc already made in his ranks, the discontent of his allies, and news from England of danger menacing his crown, are assigned as reasons for this step. On his way home, falling into the hands of the Duke of Austria, who had an old grudge against him, he lay in secret prisons for nearly two years.

1192.

Richard's departure from Palestine was the signal for a peace which promised to be lasting; but the death of Saladin, in 1193, gave a new turn to the history of the Holy Land.

The rise of the Teutonic Order dates from the third Crusade, a few generous knights having joined to tend the sick and wounded in the camp before Acre.

THE FOURTH CRUSADE.

(1195-1197.)

17. The emperor Henry VI, jailer of Richard, had his eye upon Sicily as a key to the conquest of the Byzantine Empire. To cloak his real design he organized a fourth Crusade.

Reserving a body of forty thousand under his own command, to execute his secret schemes on Sicily, he divided the rest of his forces into two parts. One, crossing the Danube, marched to Constantinople, and sailed in Greek ships to Acre. The others, setting out from the Baltic ports, did not reach Palestine till some time later.

The Syrian Christians, just beginning to taste the sweets of peace, at first looked coldly on their brethren, who came, sword in hand, from Europe. But a movement of the Saracens, before whom Joppa fell, scattered all thoughts of disunion. Banding together, the Christian soldiery waited only for their friends, who were making the long sea-passage, and then besieged Berytus

(Beirout). The capture of this great city enriched the Crusaders, and set free nine thousand Christian prisoners, who had long lain in its dungeons.

The arrival of a third army, despatched by Henry, when he had succeeded in his designs on Sicily, raised high hopes that Jerusalem would soon be freed from the Moslems. But the approach of winter delayed the great enterprise.

The siege of Thoron, on the coast, was undertaken instead. German miners tunneled through the rock on which it stood; and the walls were shaking when the besieged sued for quarter. It was refused; and with the courage of despair the defense began again. The tide turned. Rumors of an advancing Saracen host struck terror into the hearts of the Crusaders. In the dead of night their leader fled, and next day saw the whole army, scared by a storm of thunder and lightning, and fiercely hunted by their Moslem foes, scattered in headlong flight on the way to Tyre.

This was the miserable end of the fourth Crusade. Other operations might have been undertaken; but the death of the emperor Henry, whose gold had been the mainstay of the war, brought the adventurers home, to see what might be picked up on less distant fields.

THE FIFTH CRUSADE.

(1198-1204.)

18. Pope Innocent III wrote letters to stir up a new Crusade. But these would have had little influence, especially in France, which lay under an interdict, if they had not been backed by the simple eloquence of Foulque, curate of a little town on the Marne. At a great tournament he preached the Crusade with such eloquence that the lists were deserted by the knights, who thronged to take the badge of the Holy War.

With the Doge of Venice, "the blind old Dandolo," a bargain was struck for ships, and Venice was named as the place of muster. But when the day of muster came, so few of the barons had arrived that they were not able to raise the sum demanded for the hire of the ships. In their distress they accepted the offer of the Doge, to free them from all claims, if they would retake for Venice the revolted city of Zara. It lay in Dal-

1202.

matia, and had sought the protection of the Hungarian king. But in five days it was forced to yield to the arms of the Crusaders.

Having once turned aside from the real object of the expedition, they easily took a second step of the same kind. Isaac, Emperor of the East, having been deposed and blinded by his brother Alexius, his son, another Alexius, came to the crusading chiefs, imploring help. Some were for sailing instantly to Palestine; but a stronger party resolved to grant the aid. And so a magnificent fleet, sweeping down the Adriatic and up the Ægean, anchored within sight of the glittering turrets of Constantinople.

19. Encamped at Scutari, on the Asiatic side, the Crusaders prepared to pass the rapid Bosphorus. The knights crossed in flat-bottomed boats, standing lance in hand beside their horses. The opposite shore was safely occupied; and, at the same time, the Venetian galleys broke the boom across the entrance of the harbor. And then the siege began. Ever foremost in the fight was the blind old Doge, giving life and spirit to every movement of the besiegers. For eleven days (July 7-18) there was a feeble resistance, until Alexius, the usurper, fled with all the gold he could lay his hands on.

1203.

Isaac was restored to his throne; but, a quarrel arising between the Crusaders and the Greeks, war began anew. A second siege of Constantinople ended in the complete triumph of the besiegers. Baldwin, Count of Flanders, was elected emperor over one-fourth of the eastern dominions, for Isaac and his son were both dead. The remaining shares were divided between the republic of Venice and the barons of France.

THE BOY CRUSADE.

20. One of the strange facts of the Middle Ages was the Boy Crusade of 1212.

A shepherd-boy, Stephen of Vendome, gave out that God, in a vision, had bestowed on him bread, and had sent him with a letter to the King of France. Round him gathered thirty thousand children of about twelve years. Boys were there, and girls in boys' clothing, on horseback and afoot. The tears and prayers of their parents could not turn them from their mad design. The strange flame spread through all France; from castle and from hut the little ones fled to follow the car of Stephen. With wax

candles in their hands, clad in pilgrim's dress, they moved, singing hymns, over the hot, dusty plains of Provence, upheld through all the toils and terrors of the way by the wild hope that the waters of the séa, drying up before them, would open a path to the Holy Land. Robbed by the way, they were yet more pitilessly cheated in Marseilles.

Two merchants agreed to take them to Palestine, for the love of God, as the canting scoundrels said. The children set sail in seven ships. Two of these were wrecked, and all on board lost. The other five bore their precious freight to Egypt, where all were sold as slaves. It is some consolation to know that the rascal merchants were soon after hanged in Sicily.

About the same time two armies of children gathered in Germany, crossed the Alps to Genoa and Lombardy, where they were scattered and lost, very many of these, too, falling into the cruel hands of slave-dealers.

THE SIXTH CRUSADE.

(1227-1229.)

21. The next great movement, passing over the attack on Damietta in 1219, where the Christians suffered heavily, was headed by the emperor Frederic II.

Urged by Pope Gregory IX, the emperor embarked for the Holy Land; but discontent among his troops, or, if we are to believe some, a severe fit of sickness, turned him back, after he had been at sea only three days. The furious pope excommunicated him; but next year, in spite of the pontiff's continued ill-temper, he set sail for Palestine, induced chiefly by the offered alliance of the Sultan of Egypt.

1228.

The wrath of the pope, following him to Palestine, estranged from him all the clergy of that land. Nevertheless, he followed up his plans with consummate skill, and won from his friend, Malek Kamil, the sultan, by fair words and good fellowship, what so much blood had been spilled to gain. A truce for ten years was made between the princes. Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and all the towns from Joppa to Ptolemais were given up to Frederic, almost the only stipulation being that the Mosque of Omar should remain open to Moslem worshipers. This gaining of the object for which the Crusaders had striven from the first,

1229.

ought to have filled Christendom with joy; but a sullen silence hung upon the clergy. And the excommunicated prince, entering Jerusalem in triumph with his Teutonic knights, was forced, for want of a priest to perform the ceremony, to place the crown on his head with his own hands. His reign in the east was short, for the schemes of the unforgiving pope against his empire in Europe led him to return in haste to Italy.

THE SEVENTH CRUSADE.

22. Louis IX of France, one of the few monarchs honored with the title of Saint, led the seventh Crusade, when Jerusalem was again the prey of the Moslems. As he left the French shore with a large force, the notes of a sacred anthem rose from the ships.

After spending the winter at Cyprus, where his army wasted their strength in riotous living, he anchored before Damietta late in spring. Leaping, sword in hand, into the sea, amid a deadly rain of arrows, the brave king led the way to the shore. The panic-struck Moslems left Damietta to its fate.

But pestilence began to thin the ranks of the Crusaders; and, when Louis moved inland to Mansourah, a sudden rally of the flying foe met his straggling files. The death of his brother and the flower of his army made his dearly-bought victory worse than a defeat. A retreat to Damietta was resolved on; but at the village of Minieh, Louis, who might have escaped, but nobly refused to leave his broken force, was made prisoner. Nor was he released until he agreed to restore Damietta, and to pay four hundred thousand golden pieces. He lingered at Acre for four years longer, until the death of his mother obliged him to return to France.

1250.

THE EIGHTH AND LAST CRUSADE.

(1270-1272.)

23. Sixteen years later, a Crusade left France, not for Palestine, but for Africa—the grand object of St. Louis being to convert the Prince of Tunis with the sword.

The Moslem troops gave way; but a deadlier foe descended upon the French host, when plague, made worse by the unburied corpses, began its ravages. Among others, the king sickened and died.

Edward of England, afterwards Edward I, was the last of the crusading princes. Arriving in Africa to find Louis dead, he lost no time in leading his little force to the Holy Land. But the glory of the war was past. A march into Phœnicia, and a massacre of the Moslems at Nazareth, were almost his only doings. His headquarters were at Acre. The stab of a poisoned dagger—we are told that his wife saved him by sucking the wound—warned him to leave the land; and, after having spent in all some eighteen months of aimless enterprise, he returned to England to conquer Wales and vex Scotland.

Acre, which, after the loss of Jerusalem, was the center of the European power in the East, grew to be a disgrace to the name of Christianity. But its lust and riot were buried in its ruins,

1291. when, after a siege of thirty-three days, the heavy engines of Sultan Khalil pounded its strong defenses to dust, and opened the way for the Mameluke stormers. Sixty thousand Christians were slain or enslaved; and of the few who escaped to their ships, the greater part perished in the waves before they could reach the friendly coast of Cyprus.

RESULTS OF THE CRUSADES.

24. The fanaticism, ignorance, cruelty, and licentiousness of the period of the Crusades are matters of astonishment to the student of to-day. The utter failure of the immediate object to be attained by the Crusades—the permanent possession of the Holy Land by Christians—is apt to lead to a wrong judgment as to the ultimate benefits of those colossal enterprises.

The real effect of the Crusades was a vast improvement of Western peoples.

The Crusades greatly stimulated commerce. The transportation and support of the vast multitudes of Crusaders quickened industry and enterprise in the commercial world. Especially did the Italian cities flourish as a consequence; and arts and manufactures were developed.

The Christians acquired a higher civilization from their contact with the Moslems. The Saracens were far more advanced in the many arts than the Christian peoples were. We must not judge of the Mahometan civilization of that period from the status of Mahometan lands at the present time. As a result of

the Crusades the people of western Europe began to use glass for windows in their houses; to build chimneys for their household fires; to study science and mathematics; to make use of spices, and other articles of Oriental luxury.

The Crusades had the effect to diminish the power of the feudal aristocracy, which had been very oppressive to the masses of the people. In order to raise the means for Crusading enterprises, many of the nobles divided their great landed estates and sold them at a sacrifice; and thus monopolies of land were much reduced.

The Crusades did much to destroy the very spirit of fanaticism which caused them. Christians came to admire and to hold in terms of friendship the men against whom they fought in Palestine. It was impossible to disguise the fact that the Mahometan leaders were often superior in personal character and attainments, as well as in material civilization and advancement, to their Christian foes.

Intercourse between nations and individuals must tend to broaden knowledge and to liberalize thought. The Crusades widened the horizon of the peoples of Europe, and were followed by a great revival of learning throughout the Christian lands.

QUESTIONS.—What was the importance of pilgrimages in the middle ages? What pilgrimage was deemed the most meritorious of all? How were the Christian pilgrims long treated by the Mahometans in the Holy Land? What change came with the accession of the Fatimites to power? What was chivalry, or knighthood? Where did it arise? Was there need for it at the beginning? Why? When it had degenerated, who "laughed chivalry out of Europe?" How and by whom was knighthood conferred? What was the cause of the Crusades? Who was Peter the Hermit? What was the character of the First Crusade? What were the sufferings of the Crusaders? What was the final result of the enterprise? Who was made king of Jerusalem? How long an interval was there before the Second Crusade began? What orders of knighthood upheld the Christian kingdom of Jerusalem? What was the origin of the name of each? Who was St. Bernard? What was the cause of the Second Crusade? What results were achieved by it? What was the cause of the Third Crusade? Who were its principal leaders? What did Richard the Lion Hearted (Richard I of England) accomplish in Cyprus? What befel him on his return? What is said of the character of the Crusaders? What was the cause of the Fourth Crusade? Where was it? What was its miserable end? Describe the Fifth Crusade. What is said of the Children's Crusade? When was it? What was the cause of the Sixth Crusade? Who led it? How was it successful in spite of the opposition of the Pope? What is

said of the Seventh Crusade? What was the object of the Eighth, and last Crusade? What was the character of the Christians at Acre? In which of the Crusades were English sovereigns prominent? In which were French sovereigns prominent? Were the results of the Crusades, on the whole, beneficial to Christian lands? What is apt to be our impression of the influence of the Crusades from a superficial study of the subject? Mention four of the real and lasting benefits conferred upon Europe by the Crusades.

IV. Italy in the Middle Ages.

1. Except a few spots, chiefly in the south, Italy formed a part of the empire of Charlemagne; and when that great fabric fell to pieces, this, its loveliest fragment, dowered with the fatal gift of beauty, became a prey to unceasing changes, which left it as it was a half century ago—a piece of patchwork on the map of Europe.

In the ninth century the ravages of Hungarians and Saracens compelled the inhabitants of Italian towns to build strong walls round their homes and market-places. The sturdy burghers then, feeling their own strength, refused any longer to brook the insolent dominion of the nobles, who were accordingly forced to retire to their castles in the country. Thus arose the famous Italian republics, whose story is the brightest page in the history of modern Italy. About the same time, and from causes somewhat similar, arose the *communes* of France, and the great free cities of the Low Countries and the empire.

2. The owner of Canossa, when Henry IV did penance there, was Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, who was one of the best friends the papacy has ever had. At her death she bequeathed to the Church the duchy of Spoleto, and the march of Ancona. The legality of this gift being questioned, a new quarrel sprang up between the emperors and the popes, which widened into the great feud between Ghib'ellines and Guelfs. These names were borrowed from two great rival German houses, the Guelfs of Bavaria, and the Hohenstaufens of Suabia, who were called Ghibellines from a corruption of Waiblingen, one of their forts on the Rems.

The Ghibellines were the friends of the emperors; the Guelfs, with whom the pope generally sided, upheld the cause of the Italian people, who were striving to rend the links that bound them to the empire. The great struggle desolated Italy for centuries.

THE EMPIRE
in the
Thirteenth
Century

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3. Frederic Barbarossa, famous for the third Crusade, was emperor from 1152 to 1190. His attempts to strip the Italian towns of their dearly-prized liberties kindled a war. Milan first took up arms; but after a valiant resistance it fell, and all its fine old Roman buildings, monuments of dead grandeur, were destroyed. Frederic then placed over the Italian towns military governors, called *Podestas,* whose oppression kept alive the fire of revolt, which was carefully fanned, too, by the exiles of Milan. In 1167 the League of Lombardy was formed, when twenty-three Italian cities united to claim, among other privileges, the right of electing their own magistrates and making their own laws. By granting charters, and working on local jealousies, Frederic contrived to muster in opposition a league of Ghibelline cities.

1162.

In the early days of these Italian Republics their chief magistrates were consuls, varying in number from two to six, whose power was checked by certain municipal councils.

Bitter jealousy of one another, blazing often into war, and within the walls unceasing discord between the nobles and the people, sapped the prosperity of the Republics. One by one they fell, petty sovereignties rising on their ruins. And it would seem as if, when these scattered points of light went out, one by one, the brilliance of Italian glory was not dimmed, but concentrated with intenser lustre in a few great survivors. Venice and Florence were stars of the first magnitude. Pisa and Genoa still burned bright, though with an inferior splendor.

In order, then, to get some idea of Italian history during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, let us rapidly glance at Venice and Florence, concluding the chapter with a glimpse of Rome during the same period.

4. Fleeing from the sword of Attila in 452, the inhabitants of Venetia, a province which lay round the head of the Adriatic, sought refuge in the clustered islets near the mouth of the Brenta. There, governed by tribunes, they and their descendants fished, made salt, and carried on a constantly-widening commerce for more than two centuries. In 697 it was found necessary, from growing jealousies, to unite all the island republics under the rule of a Duke or Doge.

Through all the changes of early Italian history these islanders maintained independence amid their lagoons, defying even the

power of Charlemagne. While at war with Pepin, the son of the great Frank, they built the capital of their republic on the island of Rivo Alto, or Rialto. Thither, some years later, they carried from Alexandria the body of their patron, Saint Mark, whose lion-flag ever floated from the topmasts of their galleys, and from the cupolas of that magnificent pile of gold and marble—the cathedral of St. Mark—which is still the crowning beauty of romantic, picturesque Venice.

809.

5. The glory of Venice began with the Crusades. Her position, favorable for commerce, had led to ship-building on a large scale; and the hire of vessels to carry the Crusaders to Palestine filled her coffers with gold. Her ships brought back from Syria the silks and jewels and spices of the East. So this city of the waters, like Tyre of old, grew rich and strong, and her merchants became princes. The same causes led to the rapid rise of her rival, Genoa, on the opposite shore of Italy. With her commerce, her manufactures, too, throve; the silks and the glass made at Venice being especially prized. Among the splendid pageants of her days of pride the most striking was the wedding of the Adriatic. Every year, on Ascension Day, the doge, accompanied by a countless fleet of black gondolas, sailing out in the great *Bucentaur,* flung a ring into the blue waters of the sea.

The Venetian territory spread at an early date round the northern shore of the gulf. Istria and Dalmatia became hers. During the fourth Crusade she gained the Ionian Islands, the Morea, and Candia; and later she extended her sway inland through Lombardy, as far as the Adda. Cyprus was conquered by her in 1480.

6. In 1172 the appointment of the doge and other magistrates was vested in a council of four hundred and eighty members. Change after change took place, until a Council of Ten secured the government to themselves. Under this unchecked oligarchy a reign of terror began. The Ten were terrible; but still more terrible were the three inquisitors—two black, one red—appointed in 1454.

1325.

Deep mystery hung over the Three. They were elected by the Ten; none else knew their names. Their great work was to kill; and no man—doge, councillor, or inquisitor—was beyond their reach. Secretly they pronounced a doom, and erelong the stiletto or the poison-cup had done its work, or the dark waters of the lagoon had closed over a life. The spy was everywhere. No man

dared to speak out, for his most intimate companions might be on the watch to betray him. Bronze vases, shaped like a lion's mouth, gaped at the corner of every square to receive the names of suspected persons. Gloom and suspicion haunted gondola and hearth.

7. The forty-ninth Doge of Venice was old Marino Faliero, elected in 1354. A lord who had a grudge against the doge stole into the banquet-hall one night when the guests were gone, and wrote upon the wooden throne some words insulting to the young and lovely wife of Faliero. Next day the writing was seen; the culprit was soon discovered. But the light punishment inflicted on him by the council so enraged the doge that he joined in a plot to murder the chief nobles and make himself Lord of Venice. The conspiracy was discovered, and the doge was beheaded on the Giant's Staircase in April, 1355. Byron's drama of "Marino Faliero," with its interminable monologues, cannot be played, but may be read with profit.

8. Florence was originally a colony of Roman soldiers. Lying, in the opening of the twelfth century, under the dominion of the Countess Matilda, it naturally became strongly attached to the popedom; and when all the Republic cities of Tuscany took one side or other in the great struggle—pope *versus* emperor—we find Florence at the head of the Guelfic League organized by Pope Innocent III, while Pisa headed the Ghibelline cities.

The strength of the state lay in the commercial spirit of the citizens. They wove in silk and wool, made jewelry, and especially followed the occupation of bankers. They transacted business with kings. Their gold florin, coined in 1252, became the standard currency of Europe. The neighboring nobles sought to be admitted as citizens; but by the city-law they were obliged to enroll themselves on the register of some trade. Thus we find the name of Dante gracing the roll of the Florentine apothecaries.

9. In 1250 the citizens, revolting against the rule of Ghibelline nobles, established a magistracy styled the *Signoria*. One of the first acts of the newly-formed power was to recall the Guelf exiles to Florence. The year 1254 is known in the annals of Florence as the "year of victory," for in it they took Volterra and Pistoia. In 1406 they conquered Pisa, and in 1421 they bought Leghorn from the Genoese.

It would be tedious and confusing to trace the feuds in spite of which Florence grew great and rich. Enough to say that the

Guelfs triumphed, and then split into two factions—*Bianchi* and *Neri*—white and black. Dante was a white Guelf; but, when banished with his party, the moderates, he became a Ghibelline, and died poor and broken-hearted at Ravenna.

The feuds of the Albizzi and the Ricci convulsed the state at the opening of the fifteenth century. Siding with the latter were the great family of the Medici.

The merchant Giovanni de Medici made a great fortune; and his son Cosmo, born in 1389, himself too a banker, took a lead in Florentine politics.

10. Lorenzo, grandson of Cosmo, was born in 1448. His crippled and delicate father, Pietro, had left the government in the hands of five friends; but Lorenzo and his brother, when they came of age, took the reins themselves. The rage of the Pazzi, rich, ambitious merchants, one of whom had been among the five, being excited, an attack was made upon the brothers in the cathedral. Giuliano was slain; but Lorenzo, parrying the blow, escaped into the sacristy. The friends of the Medici then fell upon the conspirators. The archbishop and three of the Pazzi were hanged out of the palace windows.

1478.

So Lorenzo became chief of Florence, fulfilling the design of his grandfather, whose aim had been to subject the state to the Medici.

His splendid patronage of art and literature gained for Lorenzo the name of the Magnificent. He himself was no mean poet. He enriched the Laurentian library with many hundred rare manuscripts collected in Italy and the East. He turned his gardens at Florence into an academy, to which students flocked to study the antique from the exquisite sculptures gathered there. And by supporting young artists, and bestowing prizes for works of merit, he gave an impulse to art, which made Florence the scene of some of the most brilliant triumphs ever won by brush or chisel.

11. In 1489 Savonarola, a Dominican of Ferrara, came on foot to Florence, and soon began with eloquent tongue to lash the abuses of the Roman church. Three years later, Lorenzo, dying of gout and fever, sent to seek absolution from the brave monk; but Savonarola would not grant it unless the prince would restore liberty to his country. Lorenzo, unwilling to do this, died unabsolved. He was then forty-four. Savonarola was burned to death in the grand square of Florence in the year 1498.

When Charles VIII of France, crossing the Alps, invaded Italy (1494), the fair city of Florence was rudely spoiled. The magnificent library was destroyed; statues, vases, cameos were wantonly defaced, or carried off and lost. The Medici, then banished from Florence, were restored in 1512. And in the following year Giovanni, second son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, became pope under the title of Leo X. The extinction of the republic dates from 1537, when Cosmo I, one of a collateral branch of the Medici, was proclaimed Duke of Florence. In 1569 he was created by the pope Grand Duke of Tuscany.

12. A remarkable revolution in Rome, of which Nicola di Rienzi was the central figure, took place within the seventy-two years (1305-1377) spent by the popes at Avignon, to which place a French pope, Clement V, removed the papal court in 1305.[1]

Rienzi, the son of an innkeeper and a washerwoman, was in early youth deeply read in the great masters of the Latin tongue. Cicero and Livy were his special favorites. His classic enthusiasm gained for him the friendship of Petrarch. He was very poor, reduced to a single coat, when he received the post of apostolic notary, which rescued him from poverty. The feuds of the noble families Colonna, Orsini, and Savelli filled the streets with daily riot and bloodshed. Rienzi, whose fiery eloquence made him a man of mark in Rome, might often be seen in the centre of an eagerly attentive crowd, interpreting the words of some old brass or marble tablet, and dwelling fondly on the ancient glories of senate and people. Encouraged by the flashes of patriotic fire which from time to time burst from the enslaved people, he formed the bold design of seizing the helm of the state.

When the time was ripe, and old Stephen Colonna was absent from Rome, one hundred citizens met by night on Mount Aventine.

1347. Next day a solemn procession, bearing three great banners, passed from St. Angelo to the Capitol. Rienzi was there, bareheaded, but clad otherwise in full armor; and on his right hand marched the papal vicar, the Bishop of Orvieto. The deep tolling of the great bell drove the nobles in alarm from Rome.

13. Rienzi, then elected tribune, ruled for seven months. At first all went well. He was beloved at home, and honored abroad. His grand design was to unite all Italy into one great republic. Throughout the Roman territory robbers found their occupation gone; the inns were full; the buzz of commerce sounded in the

[1] This is known as the "Babylonish Captivity."

markets; and the ploughman's whistle was heard in the fields. But Rienzi's vanity spoiled all. Forgetting the simple grandeur of the old tribunes, he dressed in silk and gold. Silver trumpets sounded his approach, as he rode on a white steed, amid his fifty guardsmen. The nobles, secretly gathering strength, rose in arms against him. Possessing no military genius, he speedily lost the confidence of the people. A papal bull was issued against him. When the Count of Minorbino, with one hundred and fifty soldiers, seized Rome, the alarm-bell tolled in vain. None answered the summons; and the degraded tribune hid his head within the castle of St. Angelo, whence he soon escaped, to lead a miserable life, wandering through Italy, Germany, and Bohemia. In 1352 the emperor gave him up to the pope, and for some time he dwelt in custody at Avignon.

Two years later he was sent to Rome, by Pope Innocent VI. with the title of senator. A burst of enthusiastic welcome greeted
1354. him. But in four short months, his palace being stormed and burned by a furious mob, he was stabbed to death beside the Lion of Porphyry, which guards the base of the Capitol stairs.

QUESTIONS.—What description is given of Italy in the middle ages? When and why were the Italian cities compelled to build strong walls? What is said of the story of the Italian republics? Who were the Guelfs? —the Ghibellines? What were the chief magistrates of the Italian republics called? What were the chief cities among them? What was the origin of Venice? Whom did the Venetians choose for their patron saint? Whence did they obtain his bones? What was done with them? When did the glory of Venice begin? What was the Council of Ten?—the Council of Three? What was the Bucentaur?—the wedding of the Adriatic? What is the story of Malino Faliero? Who has dramatized it? What was the origin of Florence? What can you say of the Medici family?—of Lorenzo the magnificent? What is said of Dante? Relate the career of Savonarola. Relate the career of Rienzi.

V. England During the Crusades and the Hundred Years' War.

1. William the Conqueror left three sons: William II, who succeeded to the throne of England; Robert, who inherited Nor-
1096. mandy, and Henry. Robert, in his zeal for the deliverance of the Holy Sepulchre, had mortgaged his dukedom

to his brother, William II, in order to obtain the sum requisite to enter upon that enterprise. He was nevertheless the legal heir. The death of William occurred during Robert's absence in the Holy Land, which enabled Henry, the younger brother, to usurp the sovereignty both in England and in France. The more effectually to ingratiate himself with the English, he married Maud, the daughter of Margaret, Queen of Scotland, and thus a descendant of the Saxon kings.

2. Henry's only son, Prince William, in whom as the child of Maud was the blood of the Saxon line, was shipwrecked on his return to Normandy. He might have been saved, but for his fruitless efforts to preserve his sister, a natural daughter of the king. One hundred and forty young nobles perished beside; and Henry never smiled again. He induced a council of the prelates and nobles to take the oath of fealty to his daughter, Maud or Matilda,[1] who was married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, the Earl of Anjou. On the birth of an heir, afterwards Henry II, the king procured from the nobles a renewal of the oath, extending it to her son. After a reign of thirty-five years, disturbed by wars and disorders, Henry died.

3. Stephen, Earl of Boulogne, grandson of the Conqueror in the maternal line, and the first to take the oath of fealty to Matilda

1135. and her son, now urged his claim to the throne. Before Matilda could arrive in England, Stephen had been crowned by the archbishop of Canterbury. The kingdom was immediately divided by the partisans of the adverse claimants. Civil war, with its accustomed horrors, raged through the land. After many years of alternate successes, when the son of Matilda had become of age, the nation, weary of contest, compelled the hostile parties to make peace. In a council of nobles and prelates it was

1154. determined that Stephen should retain the crown during his life, and that he should be succeeded by Henry. On the death of Stephen, Henry was received with acclamations by the people of England.

4. Henry summoned a council at Clarendon, in which laws were passed declaring that priests should be amenable to the civil

1164. tribunals, without appeal to the pope, and that no edict of the pope should be binding in England without the sanction of the king. Becket, archbishop of Canterbury, resisted

[1] She was first married to the emperor, but returned to Normandy a widow.

these laws, and was arrested. Henry called him to account for the rents and profits which he had received while he was chancellor. Becket appealed to Rome, and obtained the support of the pope, Alexander III. The king, however, obliged him to flee from England, and he was for a time supported by the king of France. Henry, further to resist the usurpations of the church, suspended the payment of certain church revenues, and concluded an alliance with the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, who was at war with the pope.

5. At length each party, being afraid of the other, came to conditions of peace; and waiving controverted points, Becket was restored to his archbishopric. He came to England like a conqueror, and assumed a splendor little less than regal. He notified three of the principal prelates that the pope had excommunicated them for certain acts of obedience to the king. When the news of this arrogance was brought to Henry, who was in Normandy, he exclaimed, "Will my servants still leave me exposed to the insolence of this ungrateful and imperious priest?" Four knights of rank,

1170. William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, Richard Britts, and Reginald FitzUrse, on hearing this, repaired to Canterbury and assassinated Becket in his church, during the

1170. evening service. The news of this sacrilege filled the king with consternation. He hastened to make his peace with Rome; and the death of Becket procured for the church concessions which his life could not have secured for it. Henry obtained absolution from Pope Gregory VIII, and made a pilgrimage to the shrine of the murdered prelate, who was canonized; and so great was the fame of this martyr, especially for healing diseases, that 100,000 pilgrimages to his tomb are computed to have been made in one year!

6. Richard I succeeded to the throne of England. His first acts were preparatory to the famous crusade led by himself and Philip Augustus. On the day of his coronation a most horrible slaughter of the Jews took place, as a sacrifice acceptable

1189. to God. Their residence in the different kingdoms of Europe could never be considered safe, as they were without the protection of the laws; and at times multitudes of them fell victims to a fanatical and infuriated populace.

7. Richard, on the conclusion of the truce of Saladin, hastened

his return to his own kingdom, where the intrigues of his brother John and of Philip Augustus rendered his presence necessary. On his arrival in Germany, where he traveled in disguise, he was

1192-1194. discovered and made prisoner by the Duke of Austria, who for $300,000 placed him in the hands of the emperor. After two years Richard was liberated, the English paying the emperor that amount of ransom. He then returned to England, and was welcomed with joyful acclamations by his subjects.

8. On his death there were two claimants to the English throne; John, who took immediate possession, and Arthur of

1199. Brittany, his nephew, son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, an elder brother. John defeated the forces of Arthur, took the young prince prisoner, and killed him. The king of France summoned John to answer for the murder of Arthur, both John and Arthur being, on account of their French possessions, vassals of that monarch. John not appearing, his domains were forfeited, and Philip took possession of Normandy, Maine, and Anjou, which were thus alienated from England.

9. The unnatural murder of his nephew Arthur, and the continued violence and oppression of which John was guilty, had rendered his character and person odious to his English subjects, while his weakness enabled the people to put forth their claims to those rights of which they had long been deprived. A confederacy, including nearly all of the nobility of England, demanded the restoration of their ancient laws and the redress of their grievances. To enforce their demands they prepared for war.

1215. John found himself compelled to treat with his subjects at Runnymede, and *he subscribed to "The Charter," or the "Magna Charta."* The venerable archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton, braved the displeasure of the pope by being one of the foremost in procuring, and afterwards defending from the faithless attempts of John to annul it, this *great chart of England's freedom.* Twenty-five of the barons were named as guardians of the liberty of the kingdom, to whom was committed the charge of seeing the provisions of the charter executed. This important instrument contains the germ of constitutional liberty, not only of English liberty, but of American as well. The main points for which the charter gives surety are: 1, representation in parlia-

ment; 2, trial by jury; 3, the writ of habeas corpus. It provides also for the fixed and regular returns of the courts of common pleas, and for the safety of foreign merchants traveling within the realm.

10. John now gave his dominions to the pope, and received them back as a fief of the Holy See, together with absolution from his engagements. Then supplying himself with foreign mercenaries, he attacked the unsuspecting barons, burned their castles, and laid waste their territories. The barons, enraged, offered the crown of England to Louis, the son of Philip Augustus of France, who entered England with an army. But on the death
1216. of John many of the nobles withdrew their support from Louis, and proclaimed Henry III, the son of John. Henry applied to the parliament for money to enable him to invade France. The barons first demanded the confirmation of the charter, which was granted. The invasion was fruitless; meanwhile the spirit of disaffection spread throughout the kingdom. The great charter was again renewed by Henry, with the most imposing
1258. ceremonies; but when he afterwards disregarded it, *a parliament was summoned at Oxford, which confirmed and extended the rights of the people.* The reign of Henry is not considered a glorious one, yet during its long continuance his kingdom was less oppressed by exactions than in the times of more warlike sovereigns. It increased in wealth, and extended its com-
1265. merce; popular rights became more respected, and *for the first time the common people were represented in parliament.*

11. Henry's son and successor, Edward, went at the summons of the pope, to aid the cause of the Christians in the Holy Land. He returned to England on the death of his father, and having regulated the affairs of his kingdom, his aspiring mind conceived the design of uniting in his own person the dominion of the whole island. The Welsh, the ancient Britons, now under their king Llewellyn, struggled bravely to retain their independence, but were
1282. conquered. Llewellyn was slain in battle. His brother, prince David, was made prisoner by the English, tried as a traitor, and executed with a barbarity not infrequent in that cruel age. Tradition says that Edward then assembled the leaders of the Welsh, and told them that he would give them for

their sovereign a prince with whose manners no possible fault could be found, a Welshman by birth, who could not even speak a word of English; and that amidst their acclamations and promises of obedience he produced his own infant son, born in Wales, in the castle of Caernarvon. This was his second son; but as the oldest died, the "Prince of Wales" became thereafter the title of the heir of the monarchy.

12. Events occurred in Scotland which gave to Edward the desired opportunity to interfere in the affairs of that kingdom. Thirteen claimants to the Scottish crown appeared, but all were soon dismissed except John Baliol and Robert Bruce. They were both descendants of David I, king of Scotland. Edward decided in favor of Baliol. Baliol, however, soon found the English yoke galling; and his haughty temper being wrought upon by his nobles, he concluded an alliance with Edward's enemies, the French, and obtained from the pope a dispensation from his oath of fealty.

1283.

13. Edward invaded Scotland at the head of a powerful army, crossed the Tweed, defeated the forces of Baliol, and carried him prisoner to England. William Wallace now rose from obscurity. The fame of his brave and successful exploits drew multitudes to his standard, and at length placed him at the head of a considerable army. He defeated the English governor, near Stirling, made himself master of that fortress, and laid waste the country to Durham. Edward, who had concluded a peace with France, turned now his whole strength upon Scotland, defeated the Scots at Falkirk, proceeded to the northern parts of the kingdom, and for a time again subjected it to his power. Wallace still maintained his independence, but was at length betrayed to Edward by his pretended friend Sir John Monteith, and suffered on Tower Hill, at London, the cruel death of a traitor.

1296.

14. Robert Bruce was grandson to the competitor of Baliol. On the death of Wallace, young Bruce fled from England and offered himself as a leader of the Scots, who burned with rage at the base execution of their hero. He was joyfully received, but soon found himself surrounded by dangers and difficulties. Raising 300 men, he surprised the English and took the castle of Turnberry, in Carrick. His followers increased; and *for eight years he kept the field,* and held the whole force of England at bay. He *estab-*

lished the regularity of Parliament, and confirmed the right of the people to take a share in it by their representatives. Edward II, his successor, withdrew the forces which his father had marched into Scotland, or left them under lieutenants, contrary to his father's dying commands. The reign of this weak prince was disgraced by his subserviency to the worthless favorites whom he kept around him.

15. Edward invaded Scotland. The Scots had made careful preparations for the action, and had chosen well their battlefield,—

1314. the memorable plain of Bannockburn. The armies were in sight of each other when the Scots knelt to implore the blessing of Heaven, and to receive the benediction of their priests. The English were defeated, and driven into their own kingdom. The English queen summoned a Parliament, which deposed Edward on the ground of incapacity for governing.

16. His son Edward III was placed upon the throne, and during his minority the regency was committed to the queen. The deposed monarch was carried from place to place, till at length he was confined in Berkeley castle. The vassals one night heard dreadful shrieks from his apartment. The next morning his death was announced, and no one doubted that he had been murdered.

17. Edward III succeeded to the throne. He invaded Scotland three times. In 1337 *he began that long and terrible conflict with the French which is known in history as the Hundred Years' War,* and which was not really ended until 1453. It grew out of the determination of the French king to possess the whole of France, and the equal determination of the British ruler to retain the control of a large part of the mainland. In 1346, at the battle of Crecy, the Black Prince, son of Edward, won fame. *Cannon are said to have been used for the first time in this battle.* Ten

1356. years later, King John of France was taken prisoner at the battle of Poictiers. He was sent to England, where the king of Scotland was also a captive. A truce of two years followed this battle, and then the monarchs entered into a treaty by which Edward III renounced his pretensions to the crown of France, but obtained the full sovereignty of the ancient English possessions and recent conquests in that country, together with a liberal ransom for the French king. The peace, however, was of short duration.

18. Edward III improved England in its legislation and in

its police, and especially in its commerce and manufactures. The magnificent Windsor castle was built by him. But his foreign wars had drained his kingdom. His successes were but a dazzling show; the evils that followed were a sad reality.

19. Richard II, at the age of twelve years, succeeded his grandfather. On account of his minority, the administration was
1377. entrusted to his uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester; the latter of whom had a controlling ascendency in the government. A state of gloomy discontent pervaded England. Besides tithes and rich perquisites, *the clergy owned at this time more than one-half the landed property* in England. A great man now appeared as a reformer—John Wickliffe, born in 1324. He was educated at Oxford, and there received distinguished honors. As early as 1370 he began to speak openly of the corruptions of the church, and to charge the pope with claiming usurped powers. He then came boldly before Parliament, with a severe paper against the papal claim to infallibility, and in favor of the Scriptures being used in the vernacular tongue. This he did preparatory to publishing a translation of the Bible. Wickliffe was afterwards persecuted, but he lived to an old age, and died of disease; and though his bones were afterwards exhumed and burnt, yet his doctrines, which had gone into the minds of men, there remained and germinated.

20. Richard's ambitious uncles desired to keep him away from politics, that they might rule unchecked. They placed around him gay young men, and encouraged the disposition to pleasure natural to his age. When he became attached to these youthful companions, and granted them favors and emoluments, and when his pleasures became expensive, they charged him with favoritism and extravagance. They fomented discontents against him, and raised a powerful party, who deprived him of all his friends, some of whom were sentenced to death, and executed. Richard learned dissimulation, and quietly remained a mere cypher, while the duke of Gloucester and his party governed in his name.

21. Henry, Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt (or Ghent), Duke of Lancaster, was arrested on the charge of having used language disrespectful to the king, and was sentenced to banishment for three years. He took advantage of Richard's absence on an expedition into Ireland, and landed in England. He was joined by many of the most powerful barons, and soon

collected a large army, his ostensible object being to claim his inheritance. The Duke of York, who was regent of the kingdom in the absence of Richard, joined him, and Henry was crowned king.

22. The Duke of Lancaster was now seated on the throne, under the title of Henry IV. His reign was soon disturbed by the
1399. insurrection of the Percys in the North, and of Owen Glendower in Wales. In this reign *the first laws were passed for punishing heretics by death.* William Sawtry, a Wickliffe rector, was burnt at Smithfield; the first Christian in England was put to death, by men professing to be Christians, for alleged errors of opinon.

23. Henry of Monmouth was made Prince of Wales, and was duly acknowledged as heir to the crown; to which, on the death
1413. of his father, he succeeded, under the title of Henry V. Laws were enacted against the followers of Wickliffe, as heretics. Yet the sect increased, and under the name of Lollards, they formed an extensive party in the realm. The proceedings against them became so severe as to drive them into open rebellion. They were dispersed and their leader, Sir John Oldcastle, Lord of Cobham, a most worthy gentleman, was cruelly executed.

24. Henry now renewed the claim of the Plantagenets to the crown of France, the distracted state of that kingdom under
1415. Charles V offering a prospect of success. At the head of a powerful army he invaded France, laid siege to Harfleur, which he soon reduced, and terminated his first campaign by the memorable victory of Agincourt. Through the success of his arms, and by treaties with the Burgundian faction, Henry made himself master of Paris, and of a large portion of France. He then married the princess Catherine, daughter of the French king, and was acknowledged heir to that monarchy. Charles was reinstated on the throne of France, but he was merely a nominal king, while the real authority was in the hands of the English sovereign. Catherine, after Henry's death, married Owen Tudor, of Wales; and *from this connection sprung a House of Tudor.*

25. Henry V died in France,—his son Henry VI being yet an infant. Shortly before his death, he appointed his brothers,
1421. the dukes of Gloucester and Bedford, the former to the regency of England, and the latter to that of France.

The decay of the English power in that kingdom is connected with the story of the "Maid of Orleans."

26. When Henry IV succeeded to the sovereignty on the deposition of Richard II, who died without issue, there were still living some of the descendants of the Duke of Clarence, elder brother of John of Gaunt, and their claim was, consequently, superior to that of the Lancastrian family. Their right now descended to Richard, Duke of York, *through his mother, a descendant of Clarence.* The Yorkists took up arms, and a civil war began, which for thirty years desolated the land. This was termed *"The War of the Roses,"* the Lancastrian party assuming as a badge the red rose, and the Yorkists the white. This war comprehends one of the most disastrous periods of English history. By repeated battles and executions *the kingdom was deluged with blood, and some of the noblest families in the realm were exterminated.*

27. Edward IV was proclaimed king in London. The battle of Towton continued at intervals during three days, and resulted
1460. in the entire discomfiture of the Lancastrian army. Thirty-six thousand Englishmen are said to have fallen in that battle. Henry VI, who had never been more than a nominal king, expired in the Tower, soon after the battle of Tewkesbury. His death has been charged upon Richard of Gloucester, the only surviving brother of the king. The profligacy of Edward IV during
1483. the last years of his reign hastened his death. His son Edward V, a youth of thirteen, was declared the successor; but his coronation was postponed through the intrigues of his villainous uncle, Richard of Gloucester. On the death of his brother, Richard hastened to assume the title of protector of the kingdom. Having made himself master of the young king, he next, by fair pretenses, lured the king's younger brother, the Duke of York, from the arms of his weeping mother. He then removed all the nobles who were likely to prove obstacles to his usurpation. The Earl of Rivers, the Wydevilles, and Lords Stanley and Hastings, were executed on the same day, and without the form of trial.

28. An obsequious Parliament then declared the young princes illegitimate, and proclaimed Richard king. The two royal boys,
1483. who were confined in the Tower, now disappeared. Henry, Earl of Richmond, of the family of Owen

Tudor and the dowager queen of Henry VI, was on his paternal grandmother's side descended from John of Gaunt. In the general destruction of the Lancastrian family, he remained the only surviving chief; and though he was now in exile on the Continent, yet the Lancastrians formed a conpsiracy to dethrone the usurper.

29. Henry of Richmond embarked from Harfleur in Normandy with 2,000 men, and landed at Milford Haven in Wales, where he was gladly received by the Welsh, many of whom joined his army. Richard III had been energetic in his measures for repelling the unexpected invasion, but he could place no reliance on his disaffected subjects, nor even depend upon the fidelity of those nobles who appeared in his cause. The adverse armies met at

1485. Bosworth field, where the wicked usurper was defeated and slain. Henry was crowned on the field, and saluted as king of England. The subsequent marriage of Henry with Elizabeth united the House of York with that of Lancaster. Henry VII is the founder of the dynasty of Tudor. His reign

1492. is memorable as being the period of the discovery of America. Henry VII was the sovereign under whose banner that part of the continent which we inhabit was discovered by the Venetian captains, John and Sebastian Cabot.

A famous and very important confederacy of commercial cities arose in Europe in the middle ages, which is known in history as

1241-1630. the Hanseatic League, the name being formed from the old Teutonic word *hanse,* meaning an association for mutual support and defense. It began near the middle of the thirteenth century, being rendered necessary by the presence of pirates on the Baltic and by the exactions of nobles. Lübeck was the chief center of this famous League, which came to include eighty-five of the most considerable manufacturing and commercial towns of various nations. Factories of the League were established in London, in Bruges, in Bergen, and in Novgorod. Agriculture, mining, and the fisheries fell under its control, and the trade of all northern and central Europe was long conducted under the Hanse flag.

On the Continent the fifteenth century witnessed much dissension in the church, which led to the Reformation in the century following. The seventy-two years of "Babylonish Captivity" (see p. 191), when the popes resided at Avignon, France, were followed by the "Great Schism" of almost forty years' duration (1378-1417).

The election of Pope Urban VI, in 1378, was set aside in the same year, by the Cardinals, and Clement VII was chosen. He repaired to Avignon and there maintained a rival court, supported by France and Spain. The Council of Pisa, in 1409, vainly sought to depose both Gregory XII and Benedict XIII, the respective successors of these rivals, and elected Alexander V, who died in the following year, and was succeeded by John XXIII. There were thus for some years three simultaneous claimants to the papacy. The Council of Constance (1414 to 1418) put an end to the Schism by electing Martin V.

Another Council met at Basel, Switzerland, in 1431-49. Pope Eugenius IV sought to dissolve it. The Council retaliated by attempting to depose the pope, and chose Felix V for his successor; but after a period of schism lasting for ten years, the claims of the council and of the "anti-pope" were abandoned.

The great Council of Trent (1545-1563) fortified and united the church against the Protestants, in a counter-Reformation of great importance.

QUESTIONS.—What sons did William the Conqueror leave? Which succeeded him as king of England? Which as Duke of Normandy? For what did he mortgage his patrimony? What was done by Henry? What family affliction had the king? How did one family of the kings of England get the name of Plantagenet? What caused the civil war? How did the council settle the dispute? What council did Henry call? What laws did they pass? Who encouraged Becket in his course? Where did he go? What other measures did Henry take against the church? Each party fearing the other, what was done? What was Becket's course of conduct? What unguarded expression was used by the king? What was the consequence? What did the king do on learning of Becket's death? What happened to Richard on his return from the crusade? How was the affair concerning his ransom? How much money did the emperor gain? What occurred between him and his brother John? What was the conduct of John, and what was the fate of Arthur? What was done by the king of France? What provinces did the English lose? What made John unpopular, and even odious? What important measure was now taken by the nobles? What constitution did they obtain for John?—where and when? What ecclesiastic of England here favored the cause of human rights as well as of English liberty? For what were twenty-five barons selected? What are the main points which the charter stipulates? What conduct of John showed him not to have been in good faith when

he made the engagements of the "Magna Charta?" To whom did the English barons offer the crown? For what did Henry apply to the Parliament? How was his application met by the barons? Where and in what assembly was the great charter finally renewed? What was said of Henry's reign? When was the first regular Parliament called? Of what representatives did it consist? What crusade did Prince Edward join? On what occasion did he return? Give an account of the conquest of Wales —of the origin of the title applied to the eldest son of English kings. What account can you give of the claimants to the Scottish throne? What measures did the king of England take? Give an account of the first public acts of William Wallace. Give a further account of Edward I. What was the fate of Wallace? Who was Robert Bruce? Relate the course of Bruce up to the time of his coronation. What was now the condition and conduct of Bruce? What did Edward I confirm? What was the character and conduct of his successor? Describe the battle of Bannockburn. Who was next placed on the throne? What became of the deposed king? What were the conditions of the truce that followed the battle of Poictiers? What was the character of Edward's reign, as to his management of internal affairs? Who succeeded Edward III? What was his age? Who formed the regency during his minority? What was the state of the public mind in England? What did the clergy receive, and what own? Give an account of the English reformer. Give an account of the manner in which Richard's uncles corrupted his mind and destroyed his peace. Of what house, or family, was Richard's successor? Give an account of the Wickliffites. Give an account of Henry's invasion of France. What is related of the Princess Catherine? Whom did Henry appoint regent of England? —whom for France? How did Richard of York derive a claim to the crown? How did he come to be appointed regent? What was the civil war which ensued called? What was the character of this war? Describe the course of the war through the two succeeding battles. What became of Henry? What measures did Richard take to make his usurpation secure? What was the fate of the two princely boys? What competitor for the crown was now set up by the disaffected? Where did Henry land? What battle soon followed? What was the result of the battle? Why is the reign memorable to Americans? What was the Hanseatic League? What rendered it necessary? What success was achieved by this remarkable trades union? What respect was paid to its flag? What was the Babylonish Captivity?" Relate the events of the "Great Schism." What were the great church councils of the fifteenth century?

Modern History.

I. The Age of Columbus.

1. At the commencement of this period of history we find the nations entering upon a new order of things. While the world is ever changing, the period now under consideration is in this respect altogether remarkable; it is, in fact, the dawning of a new historic day. The Crusades, although undertaken in the spirit of fanaticism and carried on with a great and criminal destruction of human life, had yet beneficial effects on European civilization. They brought together people of distant nations, who each learned much from one another, and who, returning to their homes, there improved political and social relations. The peoples acquired a taste for articles of convenience of which they had not before known the use, and they learned where their wants might be supplied, and where their own surplus productions might find sale.

Thus an impulse was given to trade, manufactures, and arts; and European commerce began soon after the commencement of the crusades. Venice led the way. Constantinople, Genoa, and Pisa were among the earliest commercial marts. London obtained its first charter, with power to elect its sheriff, from Henry I. Its first trading company was formed in 1319. Florence, under the Med'icis, was the emporium of trade as well as of art. London was of little mercantile importance when Bruges and Ghent, and afterwards Antwerp, were the centres of European commerce.

1236. Paper money was introduced from China into Italy in the thirteenth century. In the fourteenth, banks existed in Genoa and in Florence.

2. This was an age of invention and discovery. The art of printing was invented; and the polarity of the magnetic needle

1438. was discovered, by which navigation was improved and new regions were made known. By these arts knowledge took wings, and became so widely spread that no barbarian burner

of libraries could again deprive the world of its intellectual riches. The Bible was printed. The human mind, which had begun to expand, thus received an impulse which prepared the way for breaking the fetters by which peoples were enslaved, and the Reformation dawned upon Christendom. The invention of gunpowder made a change in the art of war, which took the palm from mere physical strength and courage. It gave the invaded advantages over the invader, thus lessening the probability of settled nations being again overrun, and bringing the chances of war more within the scope of calculation. These circumstances, combined with the introduction of diplomatic art, and with the practice which now prevailed of employing and paying regular armies to replace the feudal service, greatly ameliorated the condition of Europe in respect of war. When immense masses of barbarians were moving over and prostrating the settled nations, the feudal system seemed necessary to fix them. This mission was now fulfilled and the system was passing to decay, or changing its form. The principal thrones of Europe had been simultaneously filled with kings who, with great talent and deep policy, had depressed the nobles and strengthened the royal authority. The principal ones of these were Louis XI of France, Henry VII of England, and Ferdinand of Spain. At the same time Isabella of Castile and John II of Portugal, by their patronage of navigators, added vast regions of new discovery. The practice of sending diplomatic agents, or ambassadors, from nation to nation arose in this age, and is said to have commenced with the Spaniards. Diplomacy was, however, "a knavish calling." These national agents, by order of their kings, were watching to take unfair and dishonest advantage, caring nothing for the rest of the world if their own master's power was advanced; and they did not scruple to stir up bloody and causeless wars between other nations. Posts carrying dispatches were introduced about this time.

3. A highly important feature of the period was the revival of learning. In its beginnings, this may be traced to the brilliant genius of Charlemagne, he having founded the first university in Europe, that of Paris. His friend and preceptor, Al'cuin, was its brightest ornament. Alfred of England founded the second university, that of Oxford. He was himself a scholar, and one of those to whom the English language owes its formation. The Scholastic Philosophy began with Alcuin, and through five centuries

continued to be regarded as the highest pursuit of acute minds.

4. Latin was cultivated as the only language of the learned during the dark ages. New languages now arose. They were formed by mingling the dialects of the barbarians with the Latin. The first of these which produced authors of any note was that of Provence (southern France). There the troubadours, those minstrel poets of the "joyous science," took their rise, numbering in their ranks many knights of fame and of royal degree, each of whom sung in Provençal French his lady's charms, his own devotion, and the exploits of heroes—particularly those of Palestine.

1471. The Italian language in Italy took the place of the Latin, and the great Dan'te consecrated it with his "Divine Comedy." Pe'trarch had shown its fluent melody by his love sonnets, and Boccac'cio its powers in prose. Chaucer, the father of English poetry, had begun to demonstrate the richness of his own native tongue, and its adaptation to verse. Wickliffe, the reformer, had shown its powerful energy in prose. The imprisoned monarch, James I of Scotland, had wooed the Muses in the deep solitude to which his youth was barbarously condemned. He became not only the most learned man, but also the best poet of his age. In Germany the vernacular tongues early produced excellent poems. One of these, called the "Nibelungenlied," bears some striking resemblance to the "Iliad," and is yet unequaled in the German language for the simple pathos of its narrative.

5. Among the wonders of the dark ages we are struck with the fact that they produced, apparently all at once, a species of architecture unrivaled for blended majesty and beauty, which inclines the beholder to religious awe. It has received the name of Gothic, but is now believed to have originated not with the Goths, but with the Lombards. The great cathedral of Milan is regarded to this day as unsurpassed. Notre Dame, at Paris, was one hundred years in building. About the same time was required for erecting the great York Minster in England, the cathedrals of Rheims and Rouen in France, and the church of St. Mark's, at Venice. The greatest church, in fact, the most spacious hall ever built, is St. Peter's, at Rome. The present structure was begun about 1513, and was not completed till 1614. The measures resorted to by various popes, particularly Leo X, to obtain means for its completion was a moving cause of the weakening of the papacy.

6. Painting, under the patronage of the Medici, revived at Florence, and the great Italian school was established. Cim'abue, its founder, struck out for himself an original and majestic style, in which he was excelled by Leonar'do da Vin'ci. Michaelan'gelo carried the style to a degree of sublimity which belongs to no other painter. Raphael Sanzio to the sublime united grace and beauty, and his works exhibit the utmost perfection which the art has reached.

QUESTIONS.—What do we find on commencing the study of this period? What great inventions and discoveries were made in the arts, which facilitated the spread of knowledge? What is remarked concerning the spread of knowledge by the printing of the Bible? What important feature of this period is next noticed? What part had Charlemagne in this movement?—Alfred of England? Which of these monarchs was himself a scholar? What is said of the Scholastic Philosophy? What account is given of Alcuin? What was the only language of the learned in Europe? How did new dialects arise? Which was the first of these new dialects that produced authors? What account can you give of the troubadours? What writers by their genius gave character to the modern Italian? Who were the earliest writers in the English language? In what species of composition did the Germans early excel? What remarkable poem did they produce? What is said of a species of architecture produced in the dark ages? What great cathedrals are named, and what is said of the great length of time taken to erect them? What is here said of James I? At what time and where did the art of painting revive? Who was the founder of the Italian school? Who were its greatest masters?

II. The Period of Expansion.

1. The discovery of America was accomplished by Christopher Columbus, a native of Gen'oa, in Italy. Like many of his countrymen, he early engaged in navigation. His attention to astronomy, and his knowledge of the figure of the earth, led him to believe that there might be vast countries still undiscovered, and that by sailing westward he might find a passage to the East Indies, of which Marco Polo, a Venetian traveler, had given glowing descriptions. His first application for aid in his project was made to his countrymen. They regarded his theory as the chimera of a visionary enthusiast. He turned next to Portugal. John II rejected his services, but sent out ships privately to avail himself of the plans communicated by Columbus. He failed, and Columbus quitted his court in disgust. To Henry VII of England he had fruitlessly applied through his brother Bartholomew, while he made personal

application to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. After he had passed eight years in indigence and in repeated applications to that court, Isabella at length became so far satisfied of the soundness of his views that she determined for herself and for the crown of Castile to become the patron of the enterprise. The monarchs were at this time at St. Fe, the Moorish stronghold of Granada having just surrendered to them; and so completely drained were their finances by the Moorish war, that the queen had no resource for raising the necessary funds but the sale of her jewels, which she cheerfully offered. But St. Angel, the receiver of Aragon, loaned her the money.

2. The armament when fitted out consisted of only three small vessels, manned by ninety men. With these frail barks Columbus sailed from Palos in Spain, August 3rd, 1492, and committed himself to an unknown sea. Nor is it wonderful that the superstitious crew, uninspired with the enthusiastic hopes of their commander, regarded the enterprise with feelings of awe and terror. From San Salvador, the first land discovered, Columbus visited several of the islands adjacent, and discovered Cuba and Hispaniola, now Hayti. His success spread his renown through Europe. The inhabitants of Spain crowded to behold him. The sovereigns received him with the most distinguishing marks of favor. Ferdinand and Isabella, agreeably to previous stipulation, appointed Columbus admiral and viceroy of all the countries discovered. The sanction of the pope was solicited, and Alexander VI, by virtue of his claimed authority as vicegerent of God, and therefore supreme Lord of the whole earth, gave to the Spanish monarchs the sovereignty of all the countries which their navigators should discover to the west of the meridian 350 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. To this arrangement Portugal, which was to possess all discoveries on the other side of the meridian, was indebted for its long possession of Brazil.

1492.

1493.

3. Columbus now made choice of a healthy situation, where he founded a city which he named Isabella. During a short absence of Columbus the Spaniards, disobeying his commands, irritated the natives. These assembled in large numbers, and sought to drive from the land the terrible invaders. The Spaniards received supplies from Europe, while the Indians, retiring to the

mountains and wooded parts of the island, and subsisting for a time upon the spontaneous productions of the soil, ultimately died of famine and disease. In a few months more than a third of the inhabitants of the island perished. Leaving the government of the colony to his faithful brother Bartholomew, Columbus again returned to Spain. In his third voyage he proceeded farther to the south, discovered the mouth of the Orinoco, and landed on the continent. John and Sebastian Cabot, sailing under the patronage of Henry VII of England, had in the previous year discovered the coast of Labrador.

4. Meanwhile the Portuguese had pushed their discoveries in the South and East. A squadron under the command of Vasco da Gama had doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and thus discovered the passage to India. The following year another expedition, sent to the East Indies under Cabral, steered westward to avoid the winds and calms off the coast of Africa, discovered by accident the coast of Brazil, and took possession of the country. As it was found to be on the Portuguese side of the pope's line, the right of that monarchy to the country was not disputed. This accidental discovery proved of more value to the crown of Portugal than all its East Indian possessions.

5. Hernando Cortez, an idle, wilful, and irregular young man, left his paternal mansion in Estremadura, Spain, at the age of nineteen and went as an adventurer to Hispaniola, where Diego, son and successor of the great admiral, was governor. Diego sent Velas'quez with an armament to colonize Cuba. The good monk Las Casas went as a companion of Velasquez, and exerted an influence to prevent the atrocious abuses which had occurred in the conquest of Hispaniola. Cortez also, who had acquired some fortune, went with Velasquez and settled in Cuba, where he evinced talent and energy. When it was proposed to send an armament to possess a rich country in the West, which had been visited by Grijal'va, Cortez was appointed to command the expedition. Six years after Nu'ñes De Balbo'a had discovered from the mountain heights the great Pacific, Cortez set sail from St. Jago in Cuba for Yucatan'. It was at night, with a fleet half-manned and half-equipped, and without any ceremony of leave-taking, that Hernando Cortez set forth on an expedition which was to conquer Mexico, and give a new empire to Spain.

1518.

6. Francis Pizar'ro, who went as a soldier of fortune to the West Indies, obtained some knowledge of Peru, and returned to Spain to solicit authority and means to undertake its conquest. He obtained the authority, but could not procure the money till he met Cortez, who furnished him the funds necessary to equip a small armament. With three light vessels and 180 soldiers Pizarro, taking for his associate d'Alma'gro, sailed from Panama to conquer Peru, in which ambitious enterprise he was entirely successful.

1529.

7. The death of Pope Alexander VI was followed by the election of Julius II. This pontiff, not satisfied with the engines which his sacred character put into his hands to bend kings to his will, possessed an ambition to rival those kings in the extent of his temporal dominions; and in intrigue and martial achievement he proved the master spirit of the day. The death of Pope Julius changed the aspect of things. His successor, the accomplished Leo X, of the house of Medici, showed himself friendly to France. The death of Louis XII of France occurred shortly after that of Pope Julius. The crown of France descended to his cousin Francis I. The death of Ferdinand, king of Spain, was followed by the elevation of his grandson Charles II, then sixteen years of age. From his maternal grandparents, Charles inherited Spain and Navarre. From his paternal grandparents he inherited Austria and the Netherlands. About two years after the elevation of Charles to the sovereignty of Spain the death of his grandfather, the emperor Maximilian, left the imperial throne vacant, and presented a source of competition between Charles of Spain and Francis of France. Both offered themselves as candidates. The electors at this time felt the need of a powerful sovereign to defend them from the alarming strength of the Turks. Charles was elected emperor, as Charles the Fifth, by which title he is best known in history. It was not long before the disappointed Francis found pretexts for hostilities.

1516.

8. The French king, having successfully repelled an invasion of Provence by the forces of the imperialists, marched in person at the head of an army into Italy, and besieged Pav'ia. A division of the army under the Duke of Bourbon attacked, defeated, and captured him. Francis wrote to his mother, "Madam, all is lost but our honor." France was filled with dismay.

1525.

9. Leo X was succeeded by Clement VII, also of the house of Medici. This pope, the Venetians, and the Duke of Milan, now formed a league with Francis against the emperor, and induced Henry VIII of England to become its protector. This was termed the "Holy League," the pope being at its head. The Duke of Bourbon again received the command of the imperial forces in Italy; and before the reinforcements for the confederates arrived from France he took Milan, plundered and overran the territory, and advanced upon Rome. The pope, alarmed, shut himself up in the castle of St. Angelo. Bourbon prepared to storm the city; but while mounting the wall he was slain. His army continued the assault, and took Rome; and there followed a scene of pillage, bloodshed, and rapine unequaled even in the conquests of the Goths. The imperial army remained in possession of the city two months, holding the pope a prisoner. Charles with characteristic dissimulation affected the utmost sorrow at the captivity of the pontiff, and ordered a general mourning upon an occasion at which in his heart he rejoiced.

1526.

10. Meantime Henry VIII of England, again alarmed, was excited against the emperor by the continued successes of the imperial arms, and by the indignity offered to the pope. He was encouraged in these feelings by the famous Cardinal Wolsey, who believed himself to have been excluded from the pontificate by Charles. Henry therefore now joined the Holy League, and was complimented by being made its protector. Lautrec, commander of the united armies, made himself master of Genoa and Pavia, and thence advanced towards Rome. On the approach of the confederated army, the emperor liberated the pope.

1525.

11. The Reformation had spread extensively in the empire, and threatened to subvert the authority of the pope. Charles, though an adherent of the Roman church, had been compelled by the war with France to leave the Germans in the exercise of their opinions; but he was desirous of interposing his authority for the suppression of heresy. The empire was in great danger from the Turks, who had already invaded Hungary and now menaced the Austrian dominions. To obtain the assistance of the Protestants against the Turks, Charles affected great moderation. Sol'yman, the Turkish sultan, entered Hungary at the head of 300,000 men. Charles assembled from different parts of the empire

a well-disciplined force of 90,000 foot and 20,000 horse, besides many irregulars. The emperor himself, for the first time, took the command in person. No battle was fought. Solyman, overawed, relinquished his proposed invasion, and retraced his steps to Constantinople.

12. For two years war raged in France, Spain, Italy, and the Netherlands with all its concomitant horrors, but without any decisive result. A treaty of peace was at length concluded at Crespi, in which Charles made several concessions.

1544.

QUESTIONS.—What led Columbus to believe that there were undiscovered regions? What passage did he believe might be found by sailing west? What powers did he vainly solicit? Who was the only sovereign to comprehend and aid him? Why were the Spanish revenues at this time exhausted? How did the queen propose to raise the money? What was the size of the fleet with which Columbus sailed? From what place did he depart, and when? How long was his homeward passage? How long was he absent? How was Columbus received? What application was made to the pope, and what line was fixed upon, as the boundary between the Spanish and Portuguese possessions? How had the Spaniards conducted themselves during the absence of Columbus, and what had been done by the natives? What city was founded? Give some particulars of the third voyage of Columbus. Who had discovered the continent before Columbus? What important discoveries were made by the Portuguese? Who was Hernando Cortez? What was done, and by whom, in reference to colonizing Cuba? What had Cortez to do with this colony? By whom was the Pacific Ocean first discovered? What was done by Grijalva? What was the manner of Cortez's leaving St. Jago? What did he then? Who was Francis Pizarro? For what did he return to Spain? How did he succeed in his application? From whom did he procure money? When and under what circumstances did he sail from Panama? Give an account of Julius II. Who succeeded him?—who Louis XII? Who succeeded Ferdinand? What did he inherit from his mother's parents, and from his father's parents? Relate the battle of Pavia and its consequences. Give an account of the Holy League. Who headed its forces? What bold measures were immediately taken by the emperor's forces? Relate the capture of Rome. What happened to the pope, and what did Charles do in consequence? What part was the king of England taking in these continental affairs, and on whose instigation? Who commanded the confederated armies of France and England? What was done by them?

III. The Reformation.

1. The corruptions of the church and the despotic power which the pope exercised had frequently produced controversies between

the pontiffs and the different sovereigns of Christendom. In many instances, too, individuals of uncommon penetration and courage remonstrated. The Waldenses, Wickliffe, Huss, and Jerome of Prague had borne their testimony; and although they had passed away, the leaven of their doctrines was still working in the public mind. The revival of letters had awakened a spirit of inquiry, and the influence of the art of printing began to be felt.

1393.

2. Martin Luther was destined to exercise a vast influence on human opinion in opposing the government of the church. To his mother Luther attributed his early bent to religious devotion, through which, though he was educated for a lawyer, he became an Augustine monk. He had a friend who was struck dead at his side by lightning, and this event affected his mind. In the spirit of his Order he wrought in menial occupations, and even begged through the streets of Wittenberg, in Saxony, with a bag at his back. He had never perused the Scriptures, but finding a neglected Latin copy in the library of the convent, he read and studied it, and his soul was kindled with new energies. Indulgences, when first they were sold to raise money for the Crusades, were but the commutations of prescribed penances. Now they were understood by many to mean a release from the guilt of sin, and from the vengeance of Heaven; and Leo X had them sold to raise money to pay a debt and to complete the mighty edifice of St. Peter's church. Tet'zel, a Dominican friar, employed his eloquence to persuade the people to purchase indulgences. Luther had prepared himself to deliver a course of lectures on Scriptural repentance, which fact led him to examine and detect this mystery; and he took ground against the Dominican. Tetzel threatened him with the inquisition, and with a word might have delivered him to its fires. Luther had acquired such reputation that he was made professor of theology in a university which the elector of Saxony had founded at Wittenberg. He applied himself more and more to Scripture studies, and wrote "Ninety-five Propositions," after the scholastic forms, denouncing the doctrines of purgatory, penance, and indulgences. He posted these on a church door in Wittenberg, and invited a public disputation. His challenge not being accepted, he published his "Propositions." Thus went forth to the world the first sound of the Reformation.

1507.

3. So wonderful was the effect produced on the public mind

in Germany that Tetzel now found himself in a condition rather to fear force than to use it; for the hearts of the people were with Luther. To recover his ground with the public, Tetzel published an answer to Luther, in one hundred and fifty-six propositions; but as they were based on the infallibility of the pope, while Luther derived his arguments from the Scriptures, the question was still left open. Tetzel, in an assembly of monks, burnt Luther's book. The students of the university of Wittenberg took public ground in the contest by burning that of Tetzel. Luther was forthwith summoned to Rome. Delivered as he now was by the emperor to papal vengeance, he became as a thing accursed by church and state. But he did not despair. His keen understanding pointed out to him Frederic, elector of Saxony, as a protector. The elector's vote was important to the wishes of Maximilian, in favor of his grandson Charles V for a successor in the empire; and Luther sought and obtained the protection of the powerful elector. Instead of going to Rome, Luther was allowed, at the elector's request, to appear for trial before a council at Augsburg. Finding his destruction resolved on, he escaped from his enemies and returned to Wittenberg.

4. After this, Luther openly propagated his opinions. The pope published against him a bull of excommunication. Luther had a pile erected, on which he publicly burned it. His intrepidity proved his safety, and that of his cause; for common minds confide where great courage is displayed. Charles succeeded to the empire, and convoked an assembly of the princes, the first ever held, to meet at Worms, to put down the new doctrines. Before this august tribunal, where the stern emperor was to preside, Luther was summoned; and to it, in spite of the remonstrances of his friends, he said he would go, "though there were as many devils in Worms as there were tiles on the houses." The elector had procured for him the emperor's safe-conduct for a certain number of days. Luther's entrance into Worms showed the intense and favorable interest which he excited. The papal throne and the empire were shaken by the one mind enshrined within that monk, whom a dense and almost impenetrable human mass were straining to behold, as bareheaded in an open carriage he rode into Worms. Luther appeared calm and respectful in the presence of his judges. "Are you the author of these books?" he was asked. He replied, "I am." "Will you retract the opinions

1521.

herein expressed?" was the next demand. To this Luther answered that he desired time for consideration. After two days' reflection he again appeared before the princes, and firmly gave his negative. "Unless," he said, "I shall be convinced by Scripture (for I can put no faith in popes and councils, as it is evident that they have frequently erred, and even contradicted each other), unless my conscience shall be convinced by the word of God, I neither will or can recant, since it is unworthy of an honest man to act contrary to his own convictions. Here I stand; it is impossible for me to act otherwise, so help me God."

5. His boldness was taken by Charles as an affront; and the ban of the empire was added by the emperor to the excommunication of the pope; so that Luther would be an outlaw the moment his safe-conduct should expire. The elector Frederic caused him to be seized by armed men as he was returning to Wittenberg, and had him forcibly conveyed to the castle of Wartburg, for concealment. Luther here performed the great work of translating the Scriptures into the German language; and through his amiable friend, the eloquent Mel'ancthon, he communicated many treatises for the public press. While Luther was still under a sentence of death, which any one who met him was at liberty to execute, he sallied forth from his confinement, returned, and was joyfully received at Wittenberg, where he exerted himself to settle the differences which had arisen among the friends of the Reformation.

1521.

6. Adrian VI, who succeeded Leo X, published a declaration in which, intending to reform the church, he says: "Many abominable acts have been committed for several years past in this holy chair; and we shall endeavor that our court, from which perhaps all this evil has proceeded, shall undergo a speedy reform." The German princes, some of whom were Catholics, drew up, to be transmitted to Rome, a list of the iniquities of the priesthood, and of the evils of the church system. They requested, for the purpose of adopting measures of reform, the calling of a general council. Adrian was, however, the stern foe of Luther's doctrines, and was fully bent on his destruction. He soon died, and was succeeded by Julian de Medicis, under the name of Clement VII.

1522.

7. The sentiments of the Reformers continued to spread rapidly. In Switzerland, two or three years before Luther com-

menced his career, Zuing'lius, a priest of Zurich, entered on a similar course, and the Swiss generally embraced his opinions.

1523. But a minority opposed them by an armed force, and Zuinglius was killed in battle. Eras'mus, the most learned man of his age, who had chosen retirement in Switzerland, gave his influence against the abuses of the papacy, although he was not warmly in favor of the Reformation. From Germany the new opinions extended to France, the Low Countries, and England. In the meantime the peace of Cambray liberated Charles

1529. from the French war, and he summoned a diet at Spires, to settle religious controversies. The decree of the diet confirmed that of Worms, and forbade any further innovation in religious affairs. The elector of Saxony, with other princes of the empire and the deputies of fourteen imperial cities, *protested* against this decree. Hence came the name *Protestants.*

8. The emperor summoned another diet at Augsburg. Luther was not permitted to attend, and Mel'ancthon drew up the Protestant confession of faith, which was presented to the diet; but all efforts at reconciliation were fruitless. A more rigorous decree

1531. was passed against the Protestants, who now formed the league of Smalkald, in which the Protestant states pledged themselves to defend each other against all aggressions.

9. While the papacy was thus losing on one hand, it was gaining on the other. Igna'tius Loyo'la, an elegant young knight,

1540. was fiercely fighting at the siege of Pampelu'na, when he received severe wounds in both legs. As he lay confined, a book of saints and martyrs was put into his hands; and when he arose from his bed he laid aside his military honors, and practiced the most abject and painful mortifications. He then went on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and became imbued with the belief that he had a special call to found a society for the conversion of those who sat in darkness. The pope gave his sanction, and the society was founded. It is still known by the name of *Jesuits.* This society produced a Xav'ier, a Marquette', and a host of others who zealously labored in heathen lands. But the Jesuits, because of their union, their secrecy, and their acts performed under the maxim "the end sanctifies the means," made themselves the dread not only of the Protestant, but also of the Catholic countries. The cause of the Reformation was also wounded by its friends. When Luther first returned to Wittenberg, he found

among them those who were setting aside all rule. Asserting a baptism from on high, they called themselves Anabaptists.

10. When relieved of his cares, Charles leagued himself with the pope to extirpate heresy. They convened a council at Trent.

1545. The Protestants refused to submit to its decisions. Charles, unprepared for an immediate war, had recourse to his usual arts and intrigues and negotiations. He won Mau'rice, a prince of Saxon family, by promising to give him the possessions of the elector of Saxony. While the emperor and princes were

1546. thus negotiating, Luther died; and the Protestants were subjected to all the evils arising from divided councils. The emperor manifested a desire to make the imperial dignity hereditary in his family. Maurice of Saxony now secretly became his enemy, and with consummate art set himself to countermine his plans. Maurice secured the support of Henry II, who had succeeded to the French throne. He now published a manifesto against the emperor, boldly stating the reason of his taking arms. Charles, out of health and not suspicious of ill, was with a few soldiers at Innspruck. Astounded at the news of the defection of Maurice, he had no resource but flight. Unable to travel in a carriage, the sovereign of half Europe was hurried over the Alps in a litter.

11. Negotiations at length terminated in a peace, styled "the Peace of Religion." Its principal stipulation was that the liberties

1552. and rights of the Protestants in the empire should be secured. Charles, wearied of the cares of royalty, now abdicated his crown, resigning the sovereignty of Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip. Charles's brother Ferdinand was

1556. chosen emperor by the electors of Germany. In order to leave his dominions in quiet, Charles made a truce with Henry II of France for five years. He then retired to a monastery in Spain, where he passed the two remaining years of his life with no amusement but that of making watches. Philip II of Spain, son of the emperor Charles V, having encountered a severe storm at sea, vowed to devote the remainder of his life to

1559. destroying heretics. His utmost efforts, aided by the tortures of the Inquisition, were now exerted for their extirpation; and he gave the monstrous order that all heretics in Spain, Italy, the Indies, and the Netherlands should forthwith be converted to the Catholic faith or put to death. The Nether-

lands had received the doctrines of the Reformation. They had become wealthy by their commerce and manufactures, and the free government of their cities had contributed to foster a spirit of liberty. The persecution of Spain now drove them to revolt.

12. The cruel Duke of Alva was sent by Philip, with a large body of Spanish and Italian soldiers, to reduce the Dutch to submission. He caused to be executed the Counts Egmont and Hoorn, who had taken charge of the lead. William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, who succeeded them in command, enlisted in his service a body of the German Protestants; but unable to bring Alva to an engagement, and possessing no fortified place, he was compelled to disband his army. Executions now were numerous, and many of the Dutch fled and took refuge in England. Their privateers, which had disposed of prizes in the English ports, were now excluded, owing to the remonstrances of the Spanish court. This compelled them to seek a harbor of their own, and they seized and fortified the Brille, a port of Holland. The spirit of the Hollanders revived, and many towns took sides with the Prince of Orange. Alva, foreseeing the length and the probable result of the war, petitioned to be recalled; and he returned to Spain to boast that during the five years of his command in the Netherlands 18,000 heretics had perished by the hands of the public executioner. The Prince of Orange exerted himself to establish a union of the Provinces, and procured a meeting, at Utrecht, of deputies from Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overyssel, and Guelderland, who signed the articles called the Union of the Seven United Provinces. *Thus began the Republic of Holland.*

1567.

1576.

13. The Duke of Parma, one of the most accomplished generals of the age, now commanded the Spanish forces. The Dutch States, doubting their ability to withstand the power of Spain, offered the sovereignty to Queen Elizabeth of England; and, on her rejection of it, to the French Duke of Anjou. The duke, by an attempt upon the liberty of the States, lost their confidence, and was obliged to return to France, where he soon afterwards died. The command of the confederates devolved upon the Prince of Orange, who through his whole life was faithful to the liberties of his countrymen; but an assassin, whom a reward offered by Philip had instigated to the ruthless deed, took his life. The States appointed his son Maurice to succeed him in command.

1584.

14. The hostile parties strengthened their armies. Prince Maurice enlisted bodies of Germans, Swiss, and French. The archduke received supplies from Spain, Italy, and Germany. A sanguinary battle was fought at Nieuport, near Ostend, in West Flanders (now in Belgium), in which the Dutch and English obtained the victory. Albert, archduke of Austria, soon took the field with a powerful force, and besieged Ostend. After a memorable siege of three years, which cost the archduke the lives of seventy thousand men, Ostend capitulated. Prince Maurice, meanwhile, had reduced seven towns, which more than balanced the loss. After prosecuting the war two years longer the court of Spain, retaining possession of the ten provinces to the south of the Netherlands, treated with the seven which had acceded to the Union, as an independent nation. While Philip II had lost the Netherlands, he had acquired an additional kingdom. Although not possessed of the best right, he was crowned King of Portugal. The whole Spanish peninsula, now united under one monarch, was on the death of Philip II transmitted to his son, Philip III.

1604.

1598.

15. Ferdinand I, succeeding Charles V as emperor, occupied his short reign with honest endeavors to settle the religious differences which agitated the empire. The Council of Trent was reassembled in 1562. The whole body of Protestants rejected its dogmas and denied its authority; as did a portion of the Catholics.

1558.

16. Maximilian II, son and successor of Ferdinand, was early in his reign engaged in war with the Turkish ruler, Solyman I, with whom his father had unsuccessfully contended, and who was now bent on the conquest of the empire. The success of the imperial generals checked the progress of the Ottoman arms. Maximilian was succeeded by his son Rodolph II, during whose long reign the empire continued almost undisturbed by intestine broils. He was himself of a peaceful temper, and devoted much of his time to the study of astronomy, in the company of the great astronomers Tycho Brahe and Kepler. His brother Matthias conducted the war with the Turks, who invaded Hungary; and the renown and influence he acquired by his success enabled him to obtain the crown of Hungary and to make himself master of Austria and Moravia, all of which Rodolph confirmed

1576.

to him rather than have his own peace and that of the empire disturbed.

17. At the death of Rodolph the imperial throne was given to his brother, the Archduke Matthias. The Protestant princes of the German confederation had formed a league called "The Evangelical Union." Matthias had hitherto shown himself friendly to them; but as they now pressed him for an extension of their privileges, he resisted their demands, and they complained that he encroached upon their rights, they took up arms. *This proved the beginning of the Thirty Years' War.*

1612.

Matthias procured the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary for his cousin Ferdinand, the Duke of Styria, whom he designed for his successor in the empire. These measures alarmed the Hungarians and Bohemians, who took part with the revolted princes of the Evangelical Union. Amidst these disorders Matthias died, and Ferdinand II was raised to the imperial throne. The Bohemians continued their revolt, deposed Ferdinand, and elected to the sovereignty of that kingdom Frederic V, elector Palatine of the Rhine, who had married the daughter of James I, reigning sovereign of England and Scotland. The imperialists drove him from his Palatine, and degraded him from his electoral dignity, which was conferred upon the Duke of Bavaria. Frederic's father-in-law refused in this extremity to aid him, much to the annoyance of the English subjects, who felt that their king showed himself false to the Protestant cause.

1619.

1620.

18. Ferdinand, after crushing a league of the northern powers, at the head of which was Christian IV of Denmark, aspired to establish a despotic power in Germany; to reduce the princes to the rank of nobles; and to revive the imperial jurisdiction in Italy. The princes remonstrated. Ferdinand persisted, and the Protestants formed a secret alliance with Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. The alliance was extended to the court of France, where the Cardinal Richelieu was the prime mover, and he sympathized with Gustavus in the desire of curbing the power of the House of Austria. Holland also came into the alliance; and Charles I, now king of England, furnished to the allies six thousand men.

1620.

19. Gustavus entered Pomerania and made himself master of many important places. At Leipsic he obtained a complete victory over the imperial forces under the command

1631.

of Tilly, who was an able general. All the members of the Evangelical Union now joined his standard; and he possessed himself of the whole country from the Elbe to the Rhine. Tilly having been killed, the renowned Wallenstein succeeded him. To him

1632. Gustavus offered battle at Lutzen. The contest lasted from daybreak till sunset, when the obstinate valor of the Swedes at length triumphed over the superior numbers of the enemy; but Gustavus perished. When wounded on the field, and asked by an enemy who he was: "I am," said he, "the king of Sweden; and I seal with my blood the Protestant religion and the liberties of Germany."

20. As Gustavus left but one child, Christina, a daughter of six years of age, the government of Sweden was held by the able Ox'enstiern, who was made regent. The war was conducted with vigor, and officers trained in the school of Gustavus were sent into

1635. Germany. The emperor negotiated with the Evangelical Union the treaty of Prague, by which he left the Protestants in possession of the church property and permitted the free exercise of their religion throughout the empire, with the exception of the kingdom of Bohemia and the provinces of the house of Austria. A new alliance was formed between Sweden and France, and the latter kingdom now openly participated in the war, which continued for twelve years longer. The emperor then sued earnestly

1648. for peace, and the negotiations resulted in the Treaty of Westphalia, signed October 24, 1648. Switzerland and Holland were declared to be free and sovereign States, and *"the three religions, Catholic, Lutheran, and Calvinistic," were each admitted to free enjoyment.* Thus ended the Thirty Years' War.

QUESTIONS.—Did the corruption of the church and the political claims of the pope pass unnoticed? Who are mentioned as having borne their testimony and passed away? What is said of Martin Luther? To what did he attribute the bent of his mind towards a religious life? What further excited him? How did he spend his time in the convent? What is said concerning his acquaintance with the Scriptures? When were indulgences first sold? What were they understood to imply at this time? For what purpose and by whom were they sold? How did it occur that Luther was prepared to detect and expose this? What was Tetzel's power, and how did he threaten Luther? What did Luther do in respect to his propositions? How was Luther's publication received? In what situation did this place Tetzel, and what course did he take? How did the students of Wittenberg take ground in the contest? What was Luther's condition, and

his course? To what place did he go, and whither return? Having escaped from Augsburg, what did he do at Wittenberg? What was next done by the pope? What did Luther do now? On the accession of Charles V, what measure was taken against the Reformation? What was this assembly called? Could Luther's friends dissuade him from obeying the summons of the emperor? Give an account of his entrance into Worms—of his appearance before the tribunal. What was the first question and what the reply? What was the second question, and what was the reply to that? What effect did Luther's boldness produce on the emperor? What measure was taken by the good elector to save the life of Luther? What did he accomplish during his concealment? Under what circumstances did he leave it? What declaration was published by Adrian VI? What list of grievances was by the German princes sent to Rome? What occurred on the death of Adrian? Who was Zuinglius, and when and where did he stand for the Reformation? Who was Erasmus? What countries did the new opinion extend to? Give an account of the proceedings of the Diet of Spires. How did the Reformers get the title of Protestants? What occurred at the Diet of Augsburg? To what league did this lead? Give an account of the founder of the Jesuits—of the society of the Jesuits—of the Anabaptists. What council was now convened, and by whom? Who was won by Charles? In what year did Luther die? What was then the condition of the Protestants? What was now the situation of the emperor? When and where was a peace concluded? Give an account of the abdication of Charles, and of his retirement. Give an account of the movements of Philip of Spain. What dreadful order did he give? What was the condition of the Netherlands? What effect had Philip's persecution? What commander was sent against the Netherlands? Whom did he cause to be executed? Who succeeded them as the leader of the Dutch? What difficulty did the Prince of Orange experience? What was done in respect of a harbor? What further can you relate of the Duke of Alva? Relate the time and place of the meeting of the deputies—the number of States composing the Republic. What commander now appears on the side of the Spanish? Who, on the side of the Dutch, comes at their invitation? How did he lose their confidence? What further can you relate of the Prince of Orange? Who succeeded him? Where was a battle now fought, and with what result? Give an account of the siege and capture of Ostend. What had Prince Maurice gained? What is said of the measures of the court of Spain? Who was Ferdinand I? To what part of the honors of his brother did he succeed? How was his short reign occupied? What account can you give of the Council of Trent? Who succeeded Ferdinand? Who was his and his father's adversary, and at what was he grasping? How did the Turkish war terminate? What great astronomers were the emperor's contemporaries? What kingdom did his brother obtain? Who succeeded Rodolph in the German empire? What league was formed by the Protestant princes? By what actions did Matthias manifest a grasping disposition? What proved the beginning of the Thirty Years' War? Who joined the princes of the Evangelical Union against the emperor? What account can you give of his successor? Give an account of Frederic

V, and observe particularly whom he married, as it is through this princess that Queen Victoria and her immediate ancestors held the throne of England. How did James I treat his son-in-law? Look over your map, and point out the different countries subject to the house of Austria (the whole Spanish peninsula, Naples, and Sicily, Flanders, Germany, Hungary, and Bohemia), and now point to the nations leagued against them. What battle was fought, and with what result? Who succeeded Tilly in command? Where did Gustavus give him battle, and with what result? Who was heiress, and who regent of Sweden? What was the fate of Wallenstein? Who succeeded him in command. What arrangements were made in the treaty of Prague? What treaty was signed in 1648? What smaller countries had their independence guaranteed by it? What arrangement was made with regard to religion?

IV. England Under the Tudors.

1. Henry VIII, on the death of his father, succeeded to the throne at the age of eighteen. His first step was to secure an alliance with Spain by a marriage with Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his brother Arthur. The adulation which he received on account of his feats at tournaments inflated him with the vain desire of equaling the military fame of Edward III and Henry V in the fields of France. Making the quarrels of Louis XII with the pope a pretense for war, he invaded France and demanded the surrender of those provinces which had formerly belonged to the English.

2. During his absence James IV of Scotland, incited by the French court, and complaining of grievances received from the English, collected an army, crossed the Tweed, and, passing through Alnwick, encamped at Flodden. Here he was met by the Earl of Surrey, and the bloody battle of Flodden Field was fought, in which the King of Scotland perished, with the flower of the Scottish nobility.

1513.

3. James V of Scotland was only a year old at the time of his father's death. Hostilities with the English continued, with no important results. James assumed the administration at the age of seventeen. He made peace with Henry; but espousing successively two French princesses, the last of whom was Mary of Guise, the Scottish monarch became closely united with the French. Scotland as well as England had become imbued with the principles of the Reformation. James, however, adhered zealously to the religion of Rome, and persecuted the Protestants. This was

another source of enmity between him and the King of England, and another war ensued. At Haddonrig the Scottish arms tri-
1542. umphed over the English. Shortly afterwards James assembled an army of thirty thousand men, but the feudal leaders refused to advance into England. Afterwards another army was collected, and when news arrived of their disgraceful flight on the western border, the monarch sank under the mortification and died, a week after the birth of his daughter, who was afterwards so celebrated as Mary, Queen of Scots.

4. Meanwhile a decided spirit of opposition to the church of Rome was spreading. John Knox, the stern reformer of Scotland, was already in the field. Henry VIII had written against Luther in the earlier part of his reign, and received from the pope the title of "Defender of the Faith." He had also burned several heretics. But wishing now to be divorced from his excellent wife, Catherine of Aragon, and to espouse Anne Boleyn (bul'len), a lady of his court, he thought, or affected to think, that his union with Catherine was illegal. She had been his brother's widow; and he now supported the cause of the Catholics, in order to win the favor of the pope, who, he hoped, would annul the marriage. To him he accordingly appealed, but his suit was delayed from time to time. At length Clement VII summoned Henry to appear at Rome—an act which the monarch highly resented. Henry next submitted to the universities of Europe the question of the validity of his marriage, and from several of these he received answers propitious to his purpose.

5. Cardinal Wolsey, whom Henry had raised to great power, secretly desired to procure a marriage for him with some French
1525. princess, in order to forward his own designs upon the papal crown. Wolsey was a great though ambitious man. Becoming wearied of his control, and incited to suspicion by Anne Boleyn and her friends, Henry at length resolved on his destruction. The meekness with which the cardinal submitted to his sovereign's will—not denying unjust accusations, giving up to the king large estates, and quietly returning to his ecclesiastical functions—would have propitiated any but a cruel tyrant. In his retirement, however, Wolsey was apprehended on the charge of
1530. high treason. On his journey to London he was seized with a mortal disease. Being near to death he said,

"Had I served my God as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

6. The new counselors of Henry, the sycophantic Cromwell and Cranmer, gave whatever advice they supposed the king desired to have. It was resolved, in the affair of the divorce, to await no longer the pope's determination. Henry, assuming to be himself the head of the English church, made Cranmer primate, or first dignitary; and as such, Cranmer declared that the marriage of Henry with Catherine was null and void. The virtuous princess had conducted herself with the utmost dignity and prudence; and during the five years in which Henry had disturbed her peace, as well as that of the nations of Europe, by seeking this divorce, she had never uttered a disrespectful expression. After his marriage with Anne Boleyn, Catherine, being about to die, wrote him an affectionate letter of forgiveness, which he read with tears after her death.

1532.

7. The execution of Sir Thomas More, chancellor of the kingdom, who is said to have resembled the ancient sages more than any other man who had appeared in Europe for centuries, awakened the indignation of all Christendom. He refused either to affirm or to deny the validity of Catherine's marriage, or the supremacy which the king now assumed in matters of religion, although he declared himself ready to swear that he would support the succession to the crown established by Parliament. The despotic Henry and his obsequious ministers pronounced him guilty of treason. Bishop Fisher also suffered death for denying the king's spiritual supremacy.

1535.

8. Three years after his marriage with Anne Boleyn, Henry, whose affections had again wandered, caused her to be beheaded, and on the next day he married a new favorite, Jane Seymour. She died after giving birth to a son, afterwards Edward VI. A marriage was then negotiated with Anne, duchess of Cleves, which ended in a divorce, and was succeeded by a marriage with Catherine Howard, who was brought to the scaffold. He then married Catherine Parr, who survived him.

9. The war with Scotland continued. Henry desired to procure the hand of the young queen, Mary Stuart, for his son Edward, and thus to unite both crowns. The French party preponderated in the Scottish councils, and Mary was affianced to Francis the Dauphin or prince royal of France. The war, although sanguinary,

resulted in nothing decisive; and at length a peace was concluded. Henry's last days were much occupied in ecclesiastical affairs. He was acknowledged supreme head of the church. He suppressed many religious houses, turned out the monks and nuns, and took possession of the church property; but he favored the doctrines of Rome, and burned at the stake those who denied them, as he did also those by whom these doctrines were maintained if they disputed his supremacy. At times, however, he seemed to lean to the side of the reformers of Germany, whose opinions were certainly making silent progress in England; but in church and state he was the most despotic sovereign that ever swayed the English sceptre.

10. Henry, by his will, left his crown first to his son, Edward VI, the son of Jane Seymour; next to Mary, daughter of Catherine
1547. of Spain; and next to Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn. Edward was but nine years of age at the death of his father. The government was committed to a regency, at the head of which was his uncle Henry Seymour, Earl of Hertford, now created Duke of Somerset. Adopting the opinions of Luther, Somerset established a church not only independent of the See of Rome, but dissenting from its doctrine and practice; and he used
1549. special precautions that the two churches should never coalesce. During this reign a liturgy in the English language was adopted, and the Church of England was established, on much the same foundation as that on which it now rests.

11. The health of Edward failed, and the hopes derived from his amiability of character and attachment to the Protestant cause were about to be blighted. The Duke of Northumberland now sought to prepare the way for the elevation to the throne of his son Lord Guilford Dudley, who had married Lady Jane Grey,
1553. granddaughter of Mary, youngest daughter of Henry VII. The attachment of Edward VI to the Lady Jane, who was about his own age, and who had been the companion of his studies, together with her piety and sweetness of character, rendered the young king accessible to the reasonings of Northumberland; and without the knowledge of Lady Jane, he declared her his successor. When on the death of Edward the tidings of her elevation were announced to her, she fainted with surprise and grief; and on her recovery she sought to escape the unwelcome dignity, urging the prior claims of Mary and Elizabeth. But in an evil hour she suffered her scruples to be overruled by her ambitious

relatives, and she was proclaimed queen. A contest ensued between Northumberland and the partisans of Mary, in which the latter were successful. The duke was impeached for treason, and beheaded. The innocence of Lady Jane and her husband, Lord Dudley, procured them a short respite; but at length they too were condemned, and suffered on the scaffold.

12. The leading partisans of Lady Jane were next tried and executed; and the Catholic bishops were restored. Negotiations were shortly after commenced for the marriage of the queen, which, notwithstanding the remonstrances of her subjects, resulted in a treaty with Charles V, who had proposed her union with his son Philip II. An insurrection, headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt and the Duke of Suffolk, showed the disturbed state of the public mind. The conspirators had urged the princess Elizabeth to assume the crown, which with her characteristic prudence she refused.

1555.

13. Shortly after the arrival of Philip in England, the realm was, with great ceremony, re-united to the Roman church, and absolved by the pope's legate, Cardinal Pole, from the sins of heresy and schism. At Rome this event was celebrated with great joy and splendor. This reconciliation was the signal for lighting up the fires of persecution in England. The first martyr was John Rogers, who was burnt at Smithfield, March 4, 1555. The bishops Latimer, Ridley, Hooper and Cranmer, fathers of the English church, also suffered martyrdom. The number of those who were put to death for conscience's sake during this short reign is estimated at four hundred, of whom two hundred and ninety were burned alive. Many of the Protestants fled to foreign lands. John Calvin was teaching with great reputation at Geneva, and there many of the persecuted found refuge. The death of Mary was followed by the accession of her sister Elizabeth to the throne. In the following year, the wars which had so long agitated Europe were ended by the treaty of Chateau Cambresis, which procured a general peace.

1558.

1559.

14. After Charles V, the main light of the historic picture falls upon Elizabeth of England, as being the most powerful, sagacious, and politic sovereign of her time. Though she succeeded to the throne without opposition, her claims were everywhere disputed by the Catholics, on the ground that the marriage of her father, Henry VIII, to her mother, Anne

1558.

Boleyn, was not valid, the pope not having sanctioned the divorce from Catherine of Aragon. The pope accordingly issued a bull declaring Elizabeth illegitimate, and absolving her subjects from their oath of allegiance. Her cousin Mary, Queen of Scots, was deemed by the Catholics the lawful heir. She had remained in France, and had been educated to extensive knowledge of languages, general literature, and elegant accomplishments. She was now married to the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II. By the advice of the Duke of Guise and the Cardinal of Lorraine, the brothers of her mother,[1] she assumed the arms and title of "Queen of England," thus giving just occasion of alarm to Elizabeth, although no immediate measures were taken to support her claim. Meanwhile Elizabeth strengthened herself in her authority by choosing and sustaining able counselors, and by adopting prudent measures, while with mingled courtesy and dignity she made herself as a mother to the lowest of her subjects, never refusing to receive their petitions, and to judge between them and their most powerful oppressors. But like her father, she had an indomitable will, a disposition to control unchecked all affairs in her kingdom, both secular and ecclesiastical. Hence her reign gave England prosperity and peace, but neither civil nor religious liberty.

15. In Scotland the Reformation had made great progress. The heads of the Protestant party, the principal of whom was John Knox, jealous of the influence of the Guises over the queen-regent, Mary of Guise, had associated together as the "Congregation of the Lord." The papists, now alarmed, resorted to persecution. The regent was at one time in favor with the Protestants; but she forfeited their esteem by her duplicity, and rebellion ensued. The Protestants applied to Elizabeth, who sent an army to their assistance. The queen regent, though she received troops from France, retired to Leith, where she was besieged. Here she died. The Guises dispatched envoys from France to Edinburgh, and a treaty was concluded with Elizabeth's ambassadors, by the terms of which the French forces were to be withdrawn from Scotland, and Francis and Mary were to abstain from assuming the title of king and queen of England. The rights of the Protestants were secured by the treaty, which provided for a regency of twelve persons, to be chosen jointly by the Queen of Scots and the Parlia-

[1] These two brothers, and afterwards their nephew, the Duke of Mayenne, were the heads of a powerful family called "the Guises," and sometimes "Princes of Lorraine."

ment, to govern the realm during her absence. After this the French and English armies both left Scotland; but Elizabeth held a controlling influence.

16. The Protestants, still headed by John Knox, now persecuted in their turn. Worship according to the ritual of the Romish church was utterly prohibited by law, and the third offense of this kind was made punishable by death. Meantime the Guises, although compelled by the disorders of France to yield for the present, did not relinquish their design of establishing their niece, Mary, upon the throne of England. Influenced by them, Francis II and Mary, now king and queen of France, refused to ratify the treaty which their ambassadors had made in Edinburgh, and continued to assume the title and arms of monarchs of England. The sudden death of Francis left the beautiful Mary, now no longer queen of France, at liberty to return to Scotland; and a deputation of her subjects arrived with a pressing invitation that she should assume the government. She complied, and bade adieu to France with tears and lamentations. "Farewell! dear France,—Farewell!" she said, as the receding vessel carried her from her beloved shores to a land around which clustered dark forebodings for the future.

1559.

17. On her arrival she was received with joy, and by her first measures she acquired the confidence of the Protestant party. Mary, however, was a papist; and her adherence to the regular celebration of mass soon awakened the jealousy, and at length alienated the affections of those of her subjects over whom Knox held a controlling influence. She thenceforth received from them abusive treatment, and on some occasions outrageous insult.[1] There was now peace between England and Scotland; and apparently cordial friendship between the rival queens.

1561.

18. Among the aspirants for the hand of the fair Queen of Scots was her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, eldest son of the Earl of Lenox, his mother being Margaret Douglas, niece of Henry VIII. Darnley was elegant in person, and, after Mary, next heir to the English crown. Mary married him, and by this measure excited the jealousy of the vigilant

1565.

[1] A table is now shown (the fragments having been collected) in Holy Rood House, at Edinburgh, on which stood an image of the virgin, which John Knox, intruding himself into the private apartments of his sovereign, dashed to pieces in her presence.

Elizabeth. Darnley proved not only weak and vain, but savage in temper; and he soon ceased to pay to Mary the homage to which she had been accustomed in France. The favor she showed to David Rizzio, an Italian musician whom she had made her private secretary, excited the jealousy of Darnley, who with some of his

1566. friends entered the queen's apartments, dragged the Italian from her presence, and murdered him in the room adjoining. The birth of her son James soon followed this tragic event.

19. A few months afterwards the house in which Darnley slept was destroyed by an explosion of gunpowder, and he was killed. The Earl of Bothwell was supposed to be the author of this atrocious deed, and rumor attributed to the queen a share of the guilt. Bothwell, after a mock trial, was exculpated from the charge of murder. The queen exalted him to high honors and offices; and about three months after the murder of her husband

1567. she married him. An attempt of Bothwell to get possession of the infant James drove the indignant nobles to arms. Mary also assembled forces; but on witnessing the reluctance of her troops to fight in defense of Bothwell, and receiving from the confederated lords assurances of their willingness to submit to her government if Bothwell should be banished from her councils, she dismissed him, and he fled to the Orkneys. Here his piracies raised against him new enemies, and he was finally captured, and died in a prison in Denmark. The queen herself was treacherously kept a prisoner in the castle of Lock Leven by the confederated lords, who took upon themselves the administration of the government. They next compelled her to resign, and then proclaimed her son king, under the title of James VI, making the Earl of Murray regent of the kingdom.

20. Mary escaped from her prison by the aid of a chivalric young Douglas, a captive to her charms. At Hamilton she was joined by a large number of the nobility. With an army of six

1568. thousand, she met and encountered near Glasgow, the forces of Murray, and suffered a total defeat. She then rashly threw herself upon the generosity of Elizabeth for protection. The English queen unjustly made her a prisoner and, contrary to the laws of nations—Mary being, like herself, an independent sovereign—she assumed to try her before a court of English and French commissioners, on the charge of being accessory to

the death of her husband. Mary objected to the jurisdiction, and at the same time denied the charge; but she was pronounced guilty, and was thenceforth kept a prisoner in England, always strictly guarded, and sometimes poorly accommodated. Nineteen years after her first trial she was arraigned again, this time on the accusation of being a party to a conspiracy against the life of Elizabeth. She was condemned and executed in Fotheringay castle. The misfortunes of the Queen of Scots insensibly lead the heart to regard her with sympathy, and throw a veil over her imprudences—it may be her crimes.

1587.

21. The internal administration of the English government during this period was wise and vigorous. Cecil, Lord Burleigh, the minister of state, knew every winding of human policy, even to its ultimate axiom that good faith and fair dealing are, on the whole, the most profitable. The nation rose to wealth and consequence more rapidly than at any former period. The religion of the Reformation was permanently established, and troops were sent to France to aid the distressed Protestants in that kingdom. England and Spain were at this period the most powerful nations of Europe; and the interests of the monarchs being opposed, pretexts for hostilities were found. Philip was at the head of a league formed among the Catholic powers for the suppression of heresy, while Elizabeth was regarded as the leader of the Protestant party. Philip espoused the interests of Mary, Queen of Scots, encouraged and strengthened insurrections in England, and dispatched a body of Spaniards and Italians to assist the Irish in a rebellion against the English government. Elizabeth, by the vigor of her arms, not only crushed the rebellion in her own states, but gave effectual support to the inhabitants of the Low Countries, who were struggling to escape from the tyrannical domination of Spain.

22. England was now alarmed at the intelligence that the Spanish monarch was preparing an immense fleet, styled the "Invincible Armada," for the invasion of the island. Philip laid every part of his vast dominions under contribution; and the length and nature of his warlike preparations betoken that the enterprise contemplated nothing less than the entire conquest of Britain. Indeed, so confident were the Spaniards of success that many nobles attended the armament, merely to receive a share of the division of the country.

1587.

23. Elizabeth was fully awake to the emergency.[1] She personally superintended the military preparations. She mounted her horse, rode forth and inspected her troops at Tilbury, awakened their hopes, and aroused their energies. "I will fight at your head," she said; "for, though I have but the arm of a woman, I have the heart of a king; and I am ready to pour out my blood." The Armada, from which such mighty achievements were expected, was attacked in the Channel by the English under Howard and Drake. Several ships were taken, and others sunk, or damaged; so that the Spanish commander, the Duke of Medi'na Sido'nia, was obliged to return to Spain for repairs. The winds proving contrary, he sailed forth to make the circuit of the island. Off the Orkneys a severe storm dispersed and wrecked the fleet. One-half of the vessels, and a still greater proportion of the seamen and soldiers, were destroyed. Thus ended this formidable invasion, whose destruction proved the commencement of the maritime supremacy of England.

1588.

The Parliament during this reign, *as in the preceding, generally displayed the most abject submission to the will of the sovereign.* On one occasion they demanded liberty of speech. The queen peremptorily refused, and they submitted. But before the close of the reign they took a bolder tone; and the queen showed her policy in granting with a good grace what she saw she could not safely refuse. In this reign Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe—an exploit which filled Europe with astonishment. Commercial relations were entered into with Russia and Turkey.

1572.

24. The age of Queen Elizabeth, known as the Elizabeth'an Age, was a great period in English letters. Shakespeare, Jonson, Bacon, Spenser, and a host of lesser lights, rendered the period brilliant in authorship, and gave it *an enduring fame in the history of the literature of the world.*

QUESTIONS.—What was the first appearance and conduct of Henry VIII of England, after his accession? What effect had the flatteries he received respecting his feats of arms upon his political measures? Give an account of the battle of Flodden Field—its occasion—the parties—and the result. Who succeeded James IV of Scotland? What was done respecting the regency? When did James assume the government? What matri-

[1] Sir Francis Walsingham, the English Secretary, by causing the Spanish bills to be protested at Genoa, hindered the armament a year. Drake burned a squadron in Cadiz harbor.

monial connections did he form? What contests with the English are noticed? What effect had the flight of the army on James V? What child did he leave? How was she connected with the royal family of England? What was the spread of the Reformation? Who was John Knox? What had Henry VIII done in the early part of his reign in reference to the Reformation? How did Henry now court the favor of the pope? How did the pope conduct himself on the occasion? What effect had his summons to Rome on Henry? Give an account of Cardinal Wolsey, and of his conduct?—of Henry's treatment of the Cardinal. How did Wolsey bear himself in his adversity? What were his dying words? Who were Henry's new ministers? How was the affair of the divorce managed? What was the conduct of Queen Catherine? Give an account of the chancellor. For what was he condemned and executed? Who else was executed for the same offense? What was the fate of Anne Boleyn? Mention Henry's successive wives. How did the French interests thwart the views of Henry in Scotland? How were Henry's last days occupied? How did he deal with the monasteries? How did he manifest his capricious and cruel tyranny? What was his character? Who succeeded Henry? Give some account of the political events of his reign. What was done in church affairs? How was Edward influenced in regard to the succession, and whom did he appoint? What were his reasons for appointing this lady? How did she receive the news of her elevation? What was done with the adherents of Lady Jane? Whom did Queen Mary marry? What insurrection was the consequence of her marrying a strict Catholic, she being one herself? What was offered to Elizabeth? What was done soon after Philip's arrival? Who was first put to death? Where did he suffer? What others are mentioned? Who succeeded Mary? What occurred in the following year? What may be said of Elizabeth of England as to her merits as a sovereign? What causes of annoyance had she? Where was now Mary, Queen of Scots? Who gave her bad advice, and what did she do in consequence? How did Elizabeth strengthen her authority? How did she gain the love of her people? What was the state of the Reformation in Scotland? Between what parties was there contention? What foreign influence guided the councils of the queen regent? Whom did the Protestants call to their aid, and what was done? Where did Queen Mary die? What events followed her death? By what was the Protestant cause now disgraced? How did the Guises and their niece conduct themselves in regard to the treaty? What change now took place in the life of Mary? How was Mary received in Scotland?—how treated by the Protestant leaders? Were her relations with Elizabeth amicable? How did she excite Elizabeth's jealousy? Who was Lord Darnley? What kind of a man did he prove to be? Of what shocking outrage was he guilty? What occurred soon afterwards? How was Darnley killed? What was believed concerning the murder? What was now the position of Mary? Why did she dismiss Bothwell? Did the lords deal fairly with her? What did they compel her to do? What was their next step? Who aided her escape? What parties fought a battle near Glasgow? How did it terminate? What rash step was next taken by Mary? What was now the conduct of Eliza-

beth? What further can you relate of the unfortunate Mary? What, in the meantime, was the internal administration of England? Who was the Lord Burleigh? Which were the most powerful nations of Europe? How were the positions of the sovereigns contrasted? Concerning the Queen of Scots, what part did Philip take, and what hostile measures towards England did he pursue? What great enterprise had the Spaniards now in hand? What appears to have been their expectation on the result of the invasion? How did the Queen of England meet the emergency? Describe the operations and the fate of the Armada. What did the destruction of the armament prove? What is said of the Parliament during this reign? What was done by Sir Francis Drake?

V. The Struggle in France.

1. Francis I dying in France, his son Henry II succeeded him. The death of Henry II, shortly after the treaty of Cambresis, left the throne of France to his son Francis II. This kingdom was now a scene of contention. The Protestant religion had taken a deep hold on the affections of the French people, and numbered among its disciples the Prince of Conde', Admiral Coligni', and many other important personages. The Guises were at the head of the Catholic party; and in fact, through their influence over the young and feeble Francis, they were at this period at the head of the whole French nation. Swayed by a furious zeal against the Protestants, and not satisfied with influencing the councils of the young king, they plotted to gain possession of his person and to force him into all their measures. The queen-mother, Catherine de Medici, more from ambition than from maternal regard, opposed them. This led them to the adoption of milder measures. Conde', who had been made prisoner, was released. Shortly afterwards the Guises recovered their influence in the court.

1547.

1559.

2. The sudden death of Francis II transferred the supreme authority to his mother, who exercised the office of regent during the minority of her second son, Charles IX.

3. The Protestants prevailed in the south and west of France, and under the Prince of Conde made Orleans their headquarters. The Catholics entered into a league with Philip of Spain, and the Protestants with Elizabeth of England. Havre de Grace was ceded to Elizabeth, and a body of six thousand troops was furnished by her. The Catholics besieged Rouen, which after a bloody defense surrendered. Anthony of Bourbon, King of Navarre', who at first

favored, but afterwards abandoned the Protestant cause, was here slain. His queen, Jeanne d'Albret, with her son, afterwards the gallant Henry IV, still adhered to the Protestants. The first important battle was fought at Dreux. The contest terminated in the defeat of the Protestants. A meeting between Charles IX and his sister, the Queen of Spain, was arranged to take place at Bayonne, in France, near the Pyrenees. At this conference, which Catherine and the Duke of Alva attended as minister of Philip, "the Holy League" was formed for the extirpation of heresy. The Protestants, under Conde and Coligni, again resorted to arms. A battle was fought at St. Denis, five miles north of Paris, in which the Protestants were at length driven from the field. Conde fell in battle, and the death of their commander threatened ruin to the Protestants.

1563.

1566.

1568.

4. At this juncture the intrepid Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre, animated the dispirited Protestants by her zeal, and furnished them with funds. "Despair not," said she, presenting her young son; "behold the new chief whom Heaven has sent to command you." From this time Henry was acknowledged as their leader, although the more experienced Coligni guided their councils. Liberty of worship in their towns was again granted; and their well-grounded fears of treachery were lulled by their being permitted to garrison four strong places—Rochelle, Montauban, Cognac, and La Charte, as guarantees that the conditions should be observed. But the most horrible perfidy was meditated. The design of the court was no other than to lull the fears of the Protestant leaders, draw them to the capital and other cities, and then massacre them all.

5. On various pretexts the Protestants were induced to come to Paris. Coligni, ever true to his country, was incited by the prospect of commanding in a war with Philip of Spain, for the recovery of Flanders. He was received with the most devoted respect, consulted on every occasion, and addressed by the young monarch with the title of "Father." The virtuous Queen of Navarre came with Henry, her gallant son, then seventeen. A marriage had been proposed for him, with Margaret, the sister of the king. But the suspicious eye of maternal affection saw treachery in the caresses of Catherine, and Jeanne withheld her consent. She

died suddenly, probably by poison. The negotiations for the marriage proceeded, and the leaders of the Protestants throughout
1572. France were summoned to Paris to celebrate its festivities. The wedding took place on the 17th of August, and Paris resounded with mirth and revelry.

6. In the stillness of midnight, on St. Bartholomew's eve, August 24, the tocsin bell of St. Germain L'Auxerrois awoke the inhabitants of Paris. It was the signal to begin the dreadful massacre; and the morning light looked upon more than ten thousand bleeding corpses of the Protestants, strewn through the streets and within the houses and sanctuaries of the city. Warriors, women, infants, and old men were slain. In other parts of France there were put to death sixty thousand more. The Catholic family of Montmoren'ci gave funeral honors to the mangled remains of Coligni. Pope Pius V, on hearing of the massacre, was affected to tears; but Gregory XII, who at this time succeeded him, returned public thanks to Heaven for these atrocious cruelties.

7. The king was seized with all the horrors of remorse. When the assassins who had acted by his authority came to relate, and to make a merit of, their bloody deeds the spectators beheld him shuddering as if with cold. He hated from that time his wicked mother and the Guises. "I do not know," said he to his confidential physician, "what has happened to me, but in mind and body I am shaking as in a fever. It seems to me every moment,
1574. whether waking or sleeping, that mangled bodies present themselves to me with hideous faces and covered with blood." No earthly medicine could reach the seat of his disease. He died at the Chateau of Vincennes in the most agonizing tortures, and bathed in his own blood, which oozed from his veins.

8. War was declared against Henry, King of Navarre, who had escaped the massacre of St. Bartholomew and, having been kept three years a prisoner of state, had regained his liberty. Guise was openly solicited to dethrone the King of France and take the sceptre into his own hands. This he dared not do. The king escaped and took refuge at Rouen. Guise, finding many difficulties in the way of his usurpation, entered into a compromise with the King of France, and was appointed lieutenant-general of the kingdom. Henry, however, felt himself unsafe upon his throne while his rival was in being; and Guise was assassinated by his orders, as he was entering the council chamber.

9. The pope now denounced the king of France as a heretic. Henry of France leagued with Henry of Navarre, who at the head of their united forces marched to Paris and invested it. The French monarch retired to St. Cloud, where the dagger of a monk, suborned by the Duchess of Montpensier', sister of the Duke of Guise, accomplished his death. When dying, he named Henry of Navarre as his successor. The latter now claimed the throne of France, and assumed the title of Henry IV. The Duke of Mayenne caused the Cardinal Bourbon to be proclaimed under the name of Charles X; but as he was a prisoner at Tours, Mayenne took the whole command of the war.

1589.

10. Henry met the veteran army of the league at Arques, with a force not one-quarter of their number. The faltering troops rallied, renewed the fight, and became masters of the field. Henry soon afterwards received reinforcements from England, while Mayenne obtained supplies from Spain. Disastrous now was the civil war which wasted the fair fields of France, where brothers and former friends were shedding each other's blood.[1] On the plain of Ivry another battle took place. In directing it, Henry said to his troops, "If you lose your standards, follow my white plume; you will find it in the way to victory and honor." His prediction was accomplished, and his enemies were defeated.

11. The exploits of Henry had filled Europe with his martial fame. The strictness with which he kept his faith when once plighted, and the constancy of his attachment to his friends, caused him to be trusted; and he displayed a benevolence which should have touched the hearts of his people. Still, such was the religious feeling of the time that Henry was convinced that he could not obtain the crown unless he should become a Catholic. The Protestant divines counseled him rather to renounce Protestantism than to continue the war. He accordingly did so, and was received into the bosom of the Catholic church.

1594.

12. The opposition of the Protestants, whose suspicions began to be excited by a delay in securing their rights, and by the disposal of all the great offices to the Catholics, prevented Henry from

[1] It was during these wars that the Marquis of Rosny, afterwards the Duke of Sully and ever attached to the fortunes of Henry, hearing that his wife was dangerously ill, went in disguise with a few followers to his castle, to visit her. His brothers (Catholics) had taken his castle and, deaf to his earnest pleadings, refused to admit him to visit his dying wife. The daring Rosny prepared to attack his own castle, when his brothers, rather from fear than from pity or affection, permitted him to enter.

carrying on vigorously the war against Spain. The Spaniards took Calais and Amiens, and it was with difficulty that Henry, in the exhausted state of his finances, could raise an army to withstand them. At length, at the head of such forces as he could assemble, he advanced to Amiens, which he invested, and compelled to surrender. He next came to an agreement with the Protestants, granting them by the celebrated Edict of Nantes the enjoyment

1598. of their religion, and admission to public offices. Ambassadors now met at Vervins, where a peace with Spain was concluded, on terms favorable to France.

13. Although policy compelled Henry to grant most of the high offices to the Catholics, yet his chosen friend and counselor from the beginning to the end of his career was a Protestant. This was the wise Duke of Sully. The economy and discreet management of this wise minister brought the totally deranged finances of the kingdom to order and soon placed at the disposal of his beloved monarch a well furnished treasury. Constantly seconded by Sully, Henry followed the bent of his benevolent heart in studying to promote the welfare of his kingdom. Commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, all received a new impulse. Nor did he limit his desires of doing good to his own subjects. *He conceived the bold design of banishing war from Europe, by uniting the great powers into one confederacy, and establishing a grand council after the model of the Amphictyonic, to which all the principal States of Europe should send their delegates, and refer their differences.* Sully at first opposed his views as visionary, but afterwards entered fully into them. Elizabeth of England, for whom Henry had a high respect, was also a party to the scheme.[1] The death of Elizabeth was deplored by Henry; yet he proceeded to make vast preparations for the accomplishment of his designs. But he was cut

1610. off in the midst of them by the dagger of Ravaillac′, an obscure assassin. The French nation wept for Henry of Navarre as for a father.

QUESTIONS.—Who succeeded Henry II of France? Who was now Queen of France? What was the state of the kingdom? Who were the Protestant leaders?—who the Catholic, and what their influence and

[1] This is stated on the authority of the Duke of Sully—see his "Memoirs." Some writers have treated Henry's great design with levity, considering it as a mere covering to his plans against the house of Austria. The character of Elizabeth makes it not improbable that this motive was predominant with her; but Henry had a great and benevolent heart as well as a fertile mind, and he was not a man of pretenses.

power? Who was Catherine de Medici, and what part did she take? What event placed Catherine de Medici in power? What part of France favored the Protestants? Who commanded them, and where did they make their headquarters? What place yielded to the English? What happened at the siege of Rouen? What parties were opposed at the battle of Dreux, and what were the results? As the League here mentioned was important, be particular in relating who formed it, when it was formed, where, and what was its object? Relate the battle of St. Denis. What was done by Jeanne d'Albret? How was young Henry regarded? What was now granted to the Protestants? What did Coligni do? What treaty was now made? What was the design of Catherine and her party? How and where were the leaders of the Protestants collected? What marriage had been proposed for Henry of Navarre? What happened to his mother? When did the marriage take place? Give an account of the massacre of St. Bartholomew—of the remorse and death of Charles IX. What were the designs and the conduct of Henry of Guise in relation to the sovereignty of France? What other plotters of the great massacre died at about this time? What was now done by the pope? What by Henry of France? What by Henry of Navarre? Whom did Henry III declare his successor? Relate the battle of Arques. What foreign nations furnished troops, and what was the character of the war? Relate the battle of Ivry. How was Henry situated in 1594? To what was he counseled by Protestant divines, and what did he do? What was the effect of his recantation on Paris? With what were the Protestants displeased? How did the war with Spain proceed? By what edict were the Protestants quieted? What treaty was made with Spain? Give an account of the Duke of Sully. What did he in regard to finances? In what did he aid his friend and sovereign? What bold and philanthropic design had Henry formed? Who entered into his views? What hindered his attempting to carry out his great and good plan?

VI. Great Britain Under the Early Stuarts.

1. The history of England during this period is memorable for that struggle between the Parliament and the monarch, which, beginning in the reign of James I, became more violent in that of his successors, and ended in limiting the royal prerogative and establishing the rights and liberties of the people.

1603.

On the death of Elizabeth the crown of England passed quietly from the house of Tudor, in which it had remained through five reigns, to that of Stuart. Elizabeth's successor, James I[1] of England and VI of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary, was the great-grandson of Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII.

[1] The reign of James I commenced seven years before the death of Henry IV. of France.

The accession of James was hailed by all classes of the English with enthusiasm. Sir Robert Cecil, the second son of Lord Burleigh, was the prime minister. He was a more shrewdly cunning but less honest man than his father, and was therefore a less sound politician. The Puritans, an order of Protestants who opposed the ceremonies and discipline retained in the English church, had not yet openly separated from it, expecting that on the accession of James these usages would be abolished; and they petitioned the king accordingly. James in his early youth had imbibed their notions; yet in his mature years he feared the republican tendency of their principles. His maxim was "No bishop, no king." He called a conference at Hampton Court, for the purpose of hearing the arguments on both sides; and at its close he declared that "he would have one doctrine, one discipline, one religion in substance and in ceremony"; and he therefore enjoined upon the Puritans to conform to the established worship. He shortly afterwards made arrangements on a large scale for the accurate translation of the Scriptures; and to this we are indebted for our excellent version of them.

2. The memorable "Gunpowder Plot" was concocted by men of character, who believed that the act which they meditated would be acceptable to God. The purpose of the plot was to destroy the king and Parliament. One of the conspirators hired a coal cellar, under the building where the House of Lords met, and there deposited thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which was to be exploded on the first day of the meeting of Parliament, when the king, the queen, and the prince of Wales would be in the house. The secret, which had been in the keeping of at least twenty persons for more than a year, was discovered by means of a letter written to dissuade Lord Monteagle, a Catholic nobleman, from going to the house that day.

1605.

3. Among the most notable measures of James I were those which he took for the settlement of Scotch and English subjects in northern Ireland. He abolished certain customs which supplied the place of laws, and which had kept that island in a state of disorder. Among others was that called the Eric, whereby a price was set upon every man, by the payment of which his murderer would escape unpunished. The English laws were substituted, and

regular courts of judicature were established. For making such new laws as might be necessary, an Irish House of Commons was regularly constituted. Ulster was colonized by Scotch and English Protestants. James recommended a union of the English and Scottish Parliaments, and took the title of "King of Great Britain." He encouraged the colonization of America.

4. The attempts of James to introduce the customs, rites, and discipline of the church of England into Scotland met with decided opposition. They produced popular tumults, and drew upon him the enmity of that kingdom. In his later years, too, the Parliaments of England assumed a determined tone in regard to the measures of the court.

5. Negotiations for a marriage between Charles, now prince of Wales, and the Infanta of Spain had been commenced, but were broken off through the intrigues of the unworthy favorite of both James and his son, the Duke of Buckingham; and an unfortunate war with Spain ensued. A marriage was concluded between the prince of Wales and Henrietta, sister of Louis XIII. James died in the fifty-ninth year of his age. His unwarlike disposition better suited the interests than the inclination of his subjects; and England under his government was prosperous, increasing in wealth and national power. The great Bacon honored this reign by his philosophical researches, but unhappily disgraced it by receiving bribes while filling the high judicial office of Lord Chancellor. Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood, which, opposed by his contemporaries, made him poor while he lived, but gained for him a posthumous fame.

1625.

6. Charles I inherited from his father lofty ideas of the royal prerogative, and regarded an attempt to circumscribe his authority as little less than a conspiracy against his throne. He dissolved the Parliament. To supply his necessities, he resorted to illegal methods of taxation, which had been practiced by the Tudors. Having by strenuous efforts succeeded in fitting out a fleet, he gave command of it to Lord Wimbleton, a favorite of the Duke of Buckingham. This officer sailed to Spain, mismanaged matters, and returned. Charles was obliged to summon another Parliament, in order to obtain supplies. The Commons granted the money, and at the same time requested the king to remove the Duke of Buckingham from his counsels. Charles rejected the petition, and again dissolved the Parliament.

7. A war with France, undertaken at the instigation of Buckingham, was now added to the alarming list of evils. Nothing was left to Charles but to summon Parliament again, hopeless as that measure seemed. That body now resolved to provide some security for their rights and their liberties, so often violated. They decided to furnish a fresh supply of money to the king; but before taking the vote they appointed a committee, who prepared a bill declaring the illegality of the measures of the court, and seeking to secure their liberties from future infringement. This bill, called a "Petition of Right," passed both houses of Parliament, and required only the royal assent to become a law. Charles gave it his sanction in the usual form, but with such evident tokens of unwillingness as made his sincerity distrusted. The supply which had been voted to the king was eventually granted. Parliament was proceeding still further to reform abuses, when it was prorogued by the king.

8. Shortly afterwards Buckingham, while preparing with a fleet to go to Rochelle in aid of the French Protestants, was assassinated by the deliberate stroke of Felton, a religious enthusiast.

1628. The next Parliament renewed a claim to the right of regulating the mode of taxation. It also complained of grievances in matters of religion. Charles, irritated at the continued attempts to limit his prerogative, again determined to dis-

1629. solve the Parliament; but when the speaker of the House of Commons was about to rise in order to signify the king's intention, he was forcibly held in the chair until a remonstrance was drawn up and passed. The enraged monarch committed to prison and fined the leaders of the Parliamentary party, who by this persecution only acquired an increase of popularity. Charles now resolved to govern by his prerogative, and for twelve years there was no Parliament. Not being provided with means for continuing the Continental war, he made peace with France and Spain. He extorted money gifts from his subjects, under the name of loans and "benevolences," and claimed a legal right to levy taxes for the support of the navy, calling these taxes "ship money." John Hampden refused to pay his assessment of twenty shillings. He was a man of commanding abilities and of popular manners, unblemished honor, and patriotism; and he thus boldly and openly set the example of braving the power of the crown,

in behalf of the legal rights of the people. Though the court of exchequer decided against him, giving many reasons for their decision, yet the people, as Hampden had foreseen, perceived the weakness of the royal pretensions when tried in the balance of justice, and became more and more determined not to submit to unreasonable exactions.

1638.

9. The mutual hostility of the religious parties became inveterate. The Puritans, now a numerous body, justly complained of the rigorous measures taken by the episcopacy to enforce conformity with the rules of the established church, while the church, under the control of Archbishop Laud, increased their causes of complaint by introducing new and more offensive ceremonies, and showing a manifest tendency towards the Catholic form of religious service.

10. Charles made a journey into Scotland, where his cause had been favored, for the purpose of inducing the Scots to conform to the customs of the English church. This united that nation to oppose him. An outcry was raised, and both the clergy and the people entered into a bond of union, pledging themselves to resist all religious innovations and to support each other against all opposition. This was termed the "Solemn League and Covenant." The Covenanters prepared to maintain their rights by military force. Charles, on his part, raised an army to punish their refractory zeal. Afraid to hazard a battle, and sensible of the disinclination of his English troops to the war, he endeavored to negotiate; but as he would not concede all that the Scots required, the war was renewed. The advantage was now all on the side of the Covenanters. During the pacification Charles had disbanded his army; and though he again collected a body of troops, he had no means of paying them.

1638.

11. In this dilemma he was obliged to resort to the humiliating expedient of calling a Parliament. He obtained no aid from that body, and dissolved it. The army of the Covenanters advanced into England. In their march the Scots maintained the most exact discipline, paid for their provisions, and made protestations of loyalty to the king, wishing only to obtain access to the royal person and to secure from him redress of their grievances. Charles was again obliged to make concessions to obtain a cessation of hostilities.

1640.

12. Another assembly was now convened, which received the name of the Long Parliament, and proved the most remarkable
1640. of all the Parliaments of England. Its chief leaders were John Pym, John Hampden, and Denzil Hollis. The younger Vane, now just returned from New England, where he had been Governor of Massachusetts, was from his character and family connections very influential. A week after this Parlia-
1640. ment convened, Pym carried up to the House of Lords an impeachment of high treason against Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, who was then committed to the Tower. At the beginning of this contest Wentworth had occupied the same ground in the patriotic party with Pym and Hampden; but the king bought his services, and repaid him with riches and an earldom. Strafford had been the adviser of Charles in his most illegal stretches of power. It was by his counsel that Charles had first taken up arms. Strafford had ruled in Ireland, repressing disorders, but giving offense by his tyranny. Now the representatives of the kingdom joined to impeach him of the design of altering the constitution from that of a limited to that of an absolute monarchy. The extensive mischiefs traceable to the ill advice and illegal rule of Strafford were by his judges deemed such as to render him worthy of death. Strafford had hopes from Charles, to whom he had affectionately written to do as he judged best for
1641. himself. The king took him at his word, and signed Strafford's death warrant, contrary to his promise, and without believing him to have been guilty.

13. In the meantime other measures of reform were undertaken. Denzil Hollis impeached Archbishop Laud, who was now sent to the Tower, as was Sir Robert Berkeley, the judge who gave the decision against Hampden in the case of the ship money. The prison doors were opened to the incarcerated Puritans; and the tribunal of the "Star Chamber," by which the last kings, with a show of law, had oppressed the people, was abolished. By a still bolder measure the Commons attacked the other branch of the legislative body, and declared that bishops should not sit in the House of Lords; and by another act they, in effect, made their own sitting perpetual. At this time a mysterious rebellion broke out in Ireland, in which more than ten thousand Protestants were massacred. The king, among others, was suspected of having been

one of its plotters. Bands of apprentices patrolled the streets of London, wearing their hair cut round. Captain Hyde drew his sword, and said that he would "crop the ears of the round-headed dogs," and from this time the Parliamentary party were called "the Roundheads."

14. Charles now meditated a bold stroke to restore his authority, but it proved the final subversion of it. He caused five of the members of Parliament to be impeached for treason, and despatched a sergeant-at-arms to the House to demand them. That officer was sent back without any positive answer. The king unwisely proceeded in person, with armed attendants, to the House, but the five members were gone; and as the king withdrew, the cry which greeted him was not "God save the King," but "Privilege!" "Privilege of Parliament!" Tumults succeeded, and the royal family were obliged to flee from London. Both parties now raised troops, and prepared to decide the contest by an appeal to arms. Charles raised his standard at Nottingham. On his side were most of the nobility, and the highest rank of the gentry, with their dependents; but he was destitute of arms, ammunition, and money. On the side of the Parliament were not only the main body of the military force of London, but most of the great corporations, with the seamen. A battle, not decisive, was fought at Edgehill, in which Charles commanded in person, aided by his nephew, Prince Rupert, while his opponents were headed by the Earl of Essex. At Lansdown a battle was fought without any decisive result. At Stratton and Roundway Down the Royalists were victorious.

1642.

1642.

15. In a skirmish at Chal'grove Field the patriot Hampden was slain. The Royalists made themselves masters of Bristol, and laid siege to Gloucester (glos'ter). The Parliament commanded its army under Essex to march to the relief of Gloucester, and the king was compelled to raise the siege. The armies fought again at Newbury. Neither side could claim the victory, but both sustained great losses.

1643.

16. The Scots now united with the Parliament, while the Irish dispatched succor to the king. At Marston Moor a bloody battle was fought, and was lost by the Royalists. Fifty thousand troops were engaged—a larger force than was employed at any other period during this war. The Parliamentary

1644.

commanders were Sir Thomas Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell. The Royalists were led by the Marquis of New Castle and Prince Rupert. At Naseby was fought his last and fatal battle, in which Charles commanded in person, and displayed "the conduct of a prudent general, and the valor of a stout soldier." After the loss of this battle he retreated to Wales; but finding himself unable to retrieve his fortunes, he resolved to throw himself on the generosity of the Scots. He arrived at their camp at Newark, and was at first received with marks of respect; but he was detained a prisoner, and at length was delivered to the English, for the consideration of £400,000. He was conducted by Holdenby,[1] where he was detained a prisoner by the Parliament until a change of events took him out of its hands.

1645.

1647.

17. Among the opponents of the monarch there now existed conflicting interests and hostile feelings. Another religious sect had arisen, which maintained among its opinions that right of freedom for all in matters of religion, so extensively acknowledged to-day. These were the Independents, at the head of whom was Oliver Cromwell. They were opposed not only to the king and to prelacy, but also to the presbytery. This party professed a desire to establish a republican form of government. Cromwell, by his real or pretended zeal for religion and liberty, had gained the entire confidence of the army. He sought to obtain possession of the king's person, and privately dispatched a party of five hundred horse, under Cornet Joyce,[2] who seized him at Holdenby, and conducted him to the army. Cromwell now marched at the head of the army to London, where he commanded the Parliament, which had become extremely unpopular with the nation. At the same time he paid great court to Charles, whom the hostilities of these two parties seemed again to bring into some consequence. Even at this time the king rejected overtures for a reconciliation, refusing to relinquish his high pretensions and to allow the people the share in the government which they claimed.

1647.

[1] Clarendon relates in a touching manner the great satisfaction which the king felt that his children were permitted to come and spend a day with him. These were his younger children. His oldest son was with his mother in France, learning doubtless some of those lessons in dissoluteness and double-dealing which he afterwards practiced.

[2] The cornet, who had formerly been a tailor, came into the king's presence armed with pistols. "You must go immediately along with me," said he. "Whither?" asked the king. "To the army." "By what warrant?" demanded Charles. Joyce pointed to his soldiers, tall, handsome, and well-armed. "Your warrant," said the king, "is in fair characters, and legible."

Cromwell and his adherents established him at Hampton Court, where he lived for some time with the appearance of freedom.

18. The situation of the king, however, soon became unpleasant. The visits of his friends were denied him, and angry menaces were thrown out against him by the people. Charles at length made his escape from the palace, and remained for a while concealed at Litchfield; but he was soon compelled to place himself in the keeping of Hammond, governor of the Isle of Wight. He was here detained a close prisoner until at length his opponent, doubting his own safety in case of the revival of the Royalist party, brought him to a public trial for treason, on the charge of levying war against the Parliament. Charles was condemned and was executed on the scaffold.

1648.

1649.

QUESTIONS.—For what is this period of English history memorable? What change of dynasties now occurred? Who was Elizabeth's successor? How was his accession received by different classes? What comparison was made between his manners and those of Elizabeth? What disaffection was there respecting his Scottish courtiers? What sect of Protestants is here mentioned? What measures did the king take to settle the minds of his people on religious subjects? What was the king's language? Who were the principal persons concerned in the gunpowder plot? What was its design? How was it discovered? What circumstance respecting their punishment marks a barbarous age? What is said of James's conduct in regard to Ireland? What other measures did he encourage? What tyrannical attempts of the king in regard to church matters met with opposition? What negotiations of marriage were broken off, and by whom? What connections were formed with France? What is remarked of the unwarlike disposition of James? What is said of Lord Bacon?—of Hervey? How did the king view the question of royal prerogative? What did he do in regard to Parliament and his needed supplies? What was done in relation to the Spanish war? What was Charles obliged to do in order to raise money? What was the result of the Parliament's meeting? What new war had Charles the folly to undertake? What was done by the Parliament which the king now called, and what did they obtain? Give an account of the death of Buckingham. What was done in the next Parliament? How did Charles determine to govern? How long a time intervened without a Parliament? What means did he use to obtain money? What was the state of the country in regard to religious parties? What was done in Scotland? What was the league called? What was the king's position in Scotland after this? What was he again obliged to do? What military operations occurred? What was the Parliament called which now convened, and what did it prove to be? Who were its principal leaders? What was done by Pym? Give some account of Wentworth. Of what crime was he impeached? Relate the course of his trial and execu-

tion. What other bold measures were the reforming politicians next engaged in? What massacre now occurred in Ireland? What was the state of things, now that law and order were put aside? What is the origin of the name "Roundheads"? Relate the event which proved the final subversion of the king's authority. What followed Charles's unfortunate visit to the House of Commons? Where did Charles erect his standard, and who were on his side? Give some account of the battle of Edgehill. What other battles were fought in 1642—what in 1643? In which of these was Hampden killed? Give some account of the battle of Marston Moor—of Naseby. What division arose among the Anti-royalists? What was the new sect called, and who was at its head? What was Cromwell's position? What measures did he take to get the king into his power? Does it appear that Charles might yet, by concessions, have been reconciled to his people? Where was he kept by Cromwell? Give the sequel to the history of Charles I.

VII. Cromwell and the Later Stuarts.

1. After the execution of Charles I the Commons passed an act abolishing kingly power, as useless, burdensome, and dangerous. They also abolished the House of Lords, and committed the Great Seal—the form and inscription of which they changed—to a certain number of persons who were styled the "Conservators of the Liberties of England." They devised new methods of taxation, and drained the wealth of the people. And although at first they were self-denying, at last they appropriated in one way and another large sums to themselves and their relations. But their power was upheld by a standing army of forty-five thousand men under Cromwell. He, however, saw the growing discontent of the public mind, and shaped his course accordingly. He reduced the Irish to submission, and established the authority of Parliament. The Marquis of Montrose, attempting to raise troops in Scotland for the king, was taken and executed, with forty of his followers.

1649.

2. Meanwhile the Scottish Covenanters, though little attached to the royal family, resolved to support the monarchy, and raised an army of thirty-six thousand, the command of which was given to General Lesley. They then proclaimed Charles II king of Scotland. Charles, who had sought refuge in Holland, embarked for Scotland, and on his arrival, before he landed, he signed the covenant. Parliament now recalled Cromwell from Ireland, made him captain-general of all their forces, and sent him against the Scots. He defeated them at the battle of Dunbar, gaining the victory

mainly by his own regiment. He then made himself master of Edinburgh and Leith. In the meantime the Scots, though weakened by divisions among themselves, and jealous of the prince whom they supported, had nevertheless assembled an army, with which Charles now entered England. Cromwell followed; and a year after the battle of Dunbar he defeated the royal troops at Worcester. Charles was obliged to flee. After more than a month's concealment in different places,[1] and under different disguises, he landed in Normandy.

3. The authority of the "Commonwealth" was now acknowledged throughout the whole extent of the English possessions. Cromwell took care to keep in his own hands the entire control of the army. The Parliament now distrusted him. Of this fact he was aware. Taking a file of soldiers, he entered the Parliament hall, commanded the speaker to leave his chair, and told the mem-

1653. bers they had sat long enough, since they had not done more good. Then, in his thick and confused utterance, he addressed individual members, telling Sir Harry Vane that he was a juggler and Chaloner that he was a drunkard, charging some with breaking one commandment and some with breaking another, and told the whole membership, "You are no longer a Parliament." Cromwell now, while the name of liberty was upon his lips, became a military despot. By a council of his officers he was appointed "Protector of the Commonwealth"; and he was addressed by the title of "Highness." He next summoned a number of men from the three kingdoms, who assembled at London, and he then pronounced them a Parliament. But he did not allow them to sit long, for they showed too much independence to suit his views.

4. Jealousies arose between England and Holland, and a naval war ensued. After several undecisive engagements the English fleet under Blake and Monk engaged the Dutch under Van Tromp and De Ruyter in a battle off Portland. The battle was fought

1653. with obstinacy for two days. On the third day, the Dutch were forced to yield; after which they sued for

[1] At one time he concealed himself among the thick branches of an oak tree. While the persons in pursuit of him passed underneath, he heard them express their desire of seizing him and delivering him to his father's murderers. At another time he rode two or three days' journey with Mrs. Lane, the wife of one of his adherents, on a pillion behind her. She told her cousins where she stopped at night that the young man was one of her neighbors—that he was out of health, and begged that they would send him to bed directly. In this way she kept him out of sight.

peace. England now, under the energetic government of Cromwell, rose to an importance among the nations of Europe which had been unknown since the days of Elizabeth. The Spaniards and French, the Venetians and Swiss, courted the alliance of the Protector. He formed connections with France, and engaged in the Spanish war. Besides the forces sent to the Continent in aid of France, a naval armament was dispatched to the West Indies.

1655. Jamaica, one of the Spanish islands, was conquered by Admiral Penn, and was retained by the English. The settlements in North America had been favored by the Long Parliament. From Cromwell they had a severer blow than they had ever received from the Stuarts; and the "Navigation Acts," by which he introduced a restricted system of trade, prohibited the colonists from using their own ships, and thus obliged them to sell their products to the English, and to obtain their supplies from the latter.

5. Cromwell's domestic government was perhaps as mild and equitable as his dangerous situation would permit, beset as he was by enemies who conspired against his life; yet it was rigorous, and he was guilty of some acts of tyranny and injustice on which

1658. Charles had never dared to venture. He died five years after he obtained the Protectorate, and was succeeded by his son Richard, whose mild and unambitious disposition, so unlike that of his father, took alarm at the turbulence and the cabals which surrounded him. Richard resigned the Protectorate and, retiring first to the Continent and afterwards to his estate in the country, lived unmolested and unoffending. The nation was now divided into many parties and sects. The people became weary of confusion and change, and desired in their hearts the revival of the monarchy.

6. General Monk, an able commander both by sea and by land, was at the head of the army in Scotland. He now marched into England and advanced to London, where he proceeded to execute a plan which he had formed for restoring Charles II to the throne.

1660. Disguising his designs under the appearance of zeal for the Commonwealth, he procured the dissolution of the Parliament then in session or the assembling of a new one; and he succeeded in securing the election of friends of the monarchy to the new Parliament. On its assembling, a messenger was introduced, bearing a letter from Charles to General Monk. The prince

offered a general pardon, promised liberty of conscience, assured the soldiers of their arrears of pay, and submitted all grants to Parliamentary arbitration. The House of Lords now took their share in the government and, both houses attending, Charles II was proclaimed king. Sir Matthew Hale, the distinguished chief justice, aided by Prynne, wished to have limitations imposed on the royal authority; but this important suggestion was overruled by Monk for selfish ends. Charles sailed from the Hague, and was met at Dover by General Monk and conducted to London. His return was hailed with joy by the nation.

7. Charles being thus restored to the throne, everything seemed to promise a popular and prosperous reign. But the character of the monarch soon blighted the hopes of the nation, and proved that even the school of adversity does not always teach wisdom. His agreeable person and engaging manners made him liked by all who approached him, even by those whose judgment strongly disapproved the unblushing profligacy of his life. Thus his vicious example became particularly dangerous to his subjects; and licentiousness quickly spread from the court to the ends of the kingdom. His first measures were mild and popular, but his people soon found that his promises weighed little with him. Although he had sworn to support the covenant and to protect the rights of conscience, he reëstablished episcopacy as the exclusive religion. He restored the bishops to their seats in Parliament, and the inferior clergy to their benefices. The disappointed Puritans had a still more galling demonstration to encounter in the "Act of Uniformity." By this it was ordered that every minister, school master, or fellow of a college must declare his consent to everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer, and that all ministers should be rejected who had not received episcopal ordination. By this oppressive act two thousand ministers in one day were driven from their livings.

1661.

8. Prosecutions were commenced against those concerned in the death of Charles I. Some were executed and some fled to foreign kingdoms, where, under the name "regicides," they were hunted. Three of these judges—Goffe, Whalley, and Dixwell—concealed themselves in New England. Fears of Catholicism existed, and were increased by the marriage of the king with Catherine of Portugal, a Catholic princess. But although the high character and gentle manners of the queen gave general satisfac-

tion, the king treated her at first with coldness, then with insult, and finally with neglect.

9. Charles engaged in hostilities with the Dutch on false pretenses, hoping by involving himself in a popular war to obtain money from Parliament, and to regain the good will of his subjects, whose jealousies were aroused by the interference of the Dutch with their foreign trade. He wished also to restore to his nephew, William of Holland, the dignity of stadtholder, which had formerly belonged to the family of Orange, but had been recently abolished by the Dutch. Holland was now, from her commerce, wealth, and industry, a first-class power. John De Witt, who was at the head of the republican party, had entered into an alliance with France. The English dispatched squadrons to Africa and to America, and in both they took possession of the Dutch settlements. It was at this time that Colonel Nichols took New Amsterdam from the Dutch Governor Stuyvesant; and in honor of James, Duke of York, to whom his brother King Charles had patented the country, it received the name of New York.

1664.

1664.

10. A naval engagement took place off the coast of Holland, between the Dutch fleet under the command of Admiral Opdam and the English under the Duke of York, which ended in the defeat of the Dutch. Louis XIV now sent out a fleet to aid them. The King of Denmark also, jealous of the naval power of England, came forward to their assistance. In the following year a sea fight took place off Dunkirk, the English being commanded by Monk, now Duke of Albemarle, and by Prince Rupert, and the Dutch by De Ruyter and the younger Van Tromp. It lasted four days, with alternate successes, and at length the arrival of another English squadron compelled the Dutch to retire.

1666.

11. In London a dreadful plague broke out, and nearly one hundred thousand persons fell victims to it. A terrible fire in London burned for four days, and consumed thirteen thousand buildings. Charles, though generally selfish, showed on these occasions a fatherly solicitude for his subjects. This was particularly the case in the activity manifested in extinguishing the fire and providing for the suffering population, who were exposed unsheltered to the elements. A

1665.

1666.

Dutch fleet under De Ruyter entered the Thames and burned several British ships of war. Shortly after this a treaty of peace was signed at Breda. England retained possession of New York, but ceded Surinam (British Guiana) to the Dutch.

1667.

12. Charles outraged the feelings of English patriots by the sale of Dunkirk to the French. He received for it the sum of 400,000 pounds. His brother James, Duke of York, declared himself a convert to the Catholic faith, and the evident prepossession of the king to the same faith awakened new fears. Great disorders arose in Scotland, in consequence of the arbitrary measures of the English ministry in the establishment of episcopacy in that kingdom.

1668.

13. The court party gathered strength during the last years of Charles, and tyrannical principles were advanced and gained ground. A conspiracy was formed to oppose the succession of the Duke of York. Among the conspirators was Lord Russell, who was tried and executed. Another conspiracy, called the "Rye House Plot," was headed by the Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles. This contemplated raising him to the throne and assassinating the king. Charles pardoned the offence. Algernon Sidney, an ornament to mankind, was apprehended on a charge of high treason for having been the author of a treatise in which he asserted that power is originally in the people, and is delegated by them to the Parliament, to whom the king is amenable. For these opinions, written but not published, did the infamous Jeffries, his judge, condemn to death this friend of human rights, and Sidney "rejoiced to die for the good old cause."

14. Charles was succeeded by his brother, the Duke of York, under the title of James II. Assembling his council, James declared his determination to maintain the established government both in church and in state. But his conduct in sending an embassy to make submission to the pope, in going in state to high mass (which by act of Parliament was an illegal assembly), in levying taxes without the consent of Parliament, and in advancing Catholics to office while he displaced Episcopalians, soon convinced the people of the hollowness of his professions. Insurrections broke out; one in Scotland, headed by the Duke of Argyle, and another in England, headed by the Duke of Monmouth. Their forces were defeated and scattered,

1685.

and the leaders were executed. But these successes, instead of consolidating the power of the king, had a contrary effect in consequence of the bad measures which followed. Military executions of the prisoners were frequent, and were sometimes attended with circumstances of horrid cruelty.[1] Jeffries, who was chancellor of the kingdom, received from James a commission to try the rebels; and to be tried by this cruel and unjust judge was to be condemned and executed.

15. By upholding such cruelties the monarch made himself hated by the people. William Penn, the celebrated Quaker, who had returned from the colony of Pennsylvania which he had founded in North America, was much in company with James. His father, Admiral Penn, had been a personal friend of the king, and Penn was deceived into the belief that this bigot and tyrant had good designs respecting liberty of conscience. To the clergy of the established church the king became particularly obnoxious. He not only deprived them of privileges formerly granted them, but grossly insulted them as a body by directing them to read in public his declaration of equal indulgence to all religions,—a paper which contained matters contrary to their legal claims and to their declared opinions. The archbishop of Canterbury and six bishops met and drew up a petition that the king would not oblige them to promulgate that which, by acts of Parliament, was illegal. The king not only refused to grant the petition, but committed the bishops to the Tower, and prosecuted them for libel.

1682.

16. The whole of the community, except a few office-holders, now felt that the measure of tyranny and oppression was full, and that such a government could no longer be endured. Many of the most considerable persons in both church and state made secret applications to William, Prince of Orange, who had married Mary, daughter of James (by a youthful and scandalous marriage to an English girl). The Tories and Whigs[2] united to request, secretly, that he would undertake the defense of the nation; a

[1] After the battle of Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater, in which Monmouth was defeated, Lord Feversham, who commanded against him, ordered a number of prisoners to be hanged without form of trial. Colonel Kirk did the same at Bridgewater; and when he saw their feet twitching, as they were struggling in death, he ordered the band to play a lively tune, saying, "We will give them music to their dancing."

[2] These terms were first used in the reign of Charles II, the Tory party being those who maintained the prerogative of the crown; the Whigs, those who advocated the rights of the people.

proposal highly acceptable to William, who had ever kept his eye on the English throne. He sailed with a fleet for England, and landed his army at Torbay' without opposition. The accessions to his party were so numerous and rapid that it seemed as if the whole realm were in the conspiracy. The army and navy deserted to him. James, after being absent from his palace, returned to find that his other daughter, Anne, had left him. "God help me," said the afflicted man; "my very children have forsaken me!" He sent the queen and the Prince of Wales to France, whither he himself followed[1] at about the time when William advanced to London.

17. A convention was summoned, and a vote was passed declaring that James had broken the original compact between the king and people, and that by withdrawing from the kingdom he had left the throne vacant. James was thus de-
1688. throned. At first the convention thought of making Mary the sovereign, and William regent; but he sent them word that he would not accept of a power that depended on the life of another, and that if they should conclude on this plan he could render them no assistance. Mary seconded his views, and the prince and princess of Orange were jointly declared king and queen of England. *This event, called in English history the Great and Glorious Revolution, is one of the most singular and important on record. It was accomplished without bloodshed; and in its course the principle was acknowledged that the people had, by their representatives, a right to elect their sovereign.* No king could henceforth assume, as the former princes had, that the whole kingdom was his, he deriving it from God. That assumption, a relic of the feudal system, was in England abandoned when James, for his attempts upon English constitutional liberty, was ejected, and William and Mary, by the pleasure of the nation, were made king and queen.

18. In Scotland a powerful party headed by Viscount Dundee held out for James. At Killiecrankie this brave and popular chieftain gave battle to the forces of William, under
1689. Mackay, and obtained a victory; but fatally for the cause, he fell in the engagement. James, on his flight from England, had been hospitably received by Louis XIV, and lodged at

[1] He was known henceforth, in England, as "The Pretender."

St. Germain en Laye. Having now collected a few hundred of his own subjects, and some French officers, he embarked for Ireland. The Earl of Tyrconnel, who commanded there, remaining faithful to the interests of James, had assembled an army of 40,000 men. James was received with enthusiasm, and entered Dublin amidst acclamations. The Irish Protestants, however, resisted with intrepidity, though at times they were reduced to the utmost distress. William now proceeded to Ireland in person. A battle was fought on the banks of the Boyne, in which the monarchs were both at the head of their respective armies. Victory declared in favor of William; James again fled to France, and Ireland soon afterwards submitted to the power of the conqueror.

1689.

19. Though the reign of William was often disturbed by the Jacobites (adherents of James), yet the majority of the nation supported him in his measures. While he was personally engaged in the Continental wars, Mary, whose manners were popular, exercised with ability the office of regent. Her death was deeply lamented by him, and by the people. William died at Kensington, from a fall from his horse. This monarch ruled with ability, yet not well. Ambition was in his heart. He determined so to sway the politics of Europe "that not a gun should be fired without his consent." Hence he augmented the disturbances on the Continent, and sent forth his armies to shed the blood of distant, unoffending peoples; and to maintain these armies, he commenced a system of borrowing money, which led to the accumulation of an enormous national debt. To carry his measures in Parliament, William resorted to the dishonorable and demoralizing plan of bribing the members of that body and other persons of influence, both at home and abroad. During his reign an "Act of Settlement" was passed, despite the opposition of the Jacobite party. This act secured the crown of England to Sophia, Duchess Dowager of Hanover,[1] and her descendants, they being Protestants. William was succeeded by Anne (married to George, a prince of Denmark), sister of Mary and second daughter of James II. She continued the alliance with the house of Austria; and it was during her reign that the victories of the Duke of Marlborough reflected such lustre on the British arms.

1702.

[1] Sophia was the youngest daughter of Elizabeth, daughter of James I, and the unfortunate elector. The claims of an older branch were set aside because they were Catholics.

20. The union of the legislative powers of England and Scotland is the most important event of the reign of Queen Anne.

1706. The bill proposed allowed the Scots to send to the British Parliament sixteen peers and forty-five commoners, with reciprocal rights of trade. It was violently opposed in the Scottish Parliament, on the ground of inequality of representation; but it was finally accepted, when the Parliament of England paid 398,000 pounds sterling as an equivalent.[1] It diminished the political importance of Scotland, but secured its tranquillity. Thenceforth Great Britain constituted a single kingdom.

England was weary of the long and sanguinary wars of the Spanish succession, and intrigues were set on foot against the Duke of Marlborough. Queen Anne, when young, had formed an intimacy with the witty, sprightly, but high-tempered Sarah Jennings, afterwards married to Colonel Churchill, who rose by his great military services and by the affection of the queen for his wife until he became Duke of Marlborough. He received the splendid estate and palace called, from one of his great battles, "Blenheim." The duchess introduced to the service of the queen one Abigail Hill, a cunning sycophant, who supplanted her in Anne's affections, and afterwards became "The Lady Masham." The duchess had become presuming and imperious; and when she found that the queen was growing tired of her sway, she gave loose to her fiery tongue, and irritated Anne by her reproaches. When affairs came to this pass among the women, the enemies of Marlborough, the Lords Bolingbroke, Oxford, and others, by paying court to Lady Masham, brought the queen to treat the duchess with cutting neglect, and to strip the duke of his offices. The duke, in his political and pecuniary operations, had laid himself open to censure. After this the treaty of Utrecht was negotiated, and a brief pacification of Europe ensued.

21. Queen Anne survived this event but a short time; for her ministers, no longer occupied with a foreign war, broke into furious quarrels with one another. With all the energy that her gentle nature could command, the queen sought to direct affairs, and to settle difficulties; and for that purpose she attended a long conference and dispute of her cabinet council. Her feminine mind was overwhelmed with this strife of masculine passions. She

[1] In all taxes on land, Scotland is to raise one-sixth, England five-sixths.

declared that she could not outlive it. She sank into a lethargy and, after lingering two days, expired. The ministers, when they found that the queen must die, were roused to a better spirit and, by their wise and rapid measures, placed the kingdom in a condition which secured the peaceful succession of the House of Hanover, in the person of George I.

QUESTIONS.—What act was now passed in England by the Commons? How did they deal with the House of Lords? Who were the keepers of the Great Seal? What was done after the king's death? What part was taken by Cromwell? Give some account of the Marquis of Montrose. What was done by the Scottish Covenanters? What by Charles II? Whom did Parliament put in command against the Scots? Give an account of the battle of Dunbar?—of Worcester. What was now the situation of Charles? What was the situation of the Commonwealth? Describe the manner in which Cromwell turned out the remaining part of the Long Parliament. What title did he now receive? Whom did he cause to assemble? Give an account of the war with the Dutch. What was England in regard to respectability? What war did Cromwell maintain? What island did Admiral Penn conquer for the English? What is said of the North American settlements? What was the character of Cromwell's domestic government? Give an account of his successor? Who was General Monk, and what did he do? What plan had he formed? What measures did he cause to be taken in reference to Parliament? What letter was received? What attempt was made by Sir Matthew Hale? Relate some of the circumstances of Charles's return. What blighted the hopes of the English nation respecting their monarch? How was he faithless to the Covenanters? What was ordained in the Act of Uniformity? How did this affect the clergy who could not conscientiously conform? What account can you give of the regicides? Who was queen, and how was she treated by the king? Give an account of the war with the Dutch. What place on our coast was taken from the Dutch? What change of name occurred? Give an account of the naval engagement off the coast of Holland. What nations aided the Dutch? What battle took place off Dunkirk? What calamities now were visited on London? What was the conduct of the king on these occasions? What was done by a Dutch fleet? What was gained and lost by England at the peace of Breda? How did Charles further offend the English? What measures were taken by Charles to keep his people in good humor? What party and principles gained ground, and when? What account can you give of the Rye House Plot? Give an account of the trial of Algernon Sidney. Who succeeded Charles? What were his professions, and his conduct? What insurrections broke out, and what were the results? What measures followed, and how did they affect the stability of James's power? What is said of Jeffries? What is said of William Penn? In what year did he found Philadelphia? How did James offend the established clergy? What had now become the feeling of the community? What was done to

call in another person to take the crown from James? Give some account of the movements of William—of James. What was passed in the convention? What ground did William take in regard to divided authority? What is this event called in English history? What disturbance occurred in Scotland?—what in Ireland? Relate the battle of the Boyne. What circumstances are mentioned of the life and death of William and Mary? What is remarked concerning the reign of William III? What bad system did he commence? What demoralizing plan did he adopt in order to carry his measures in Parliament? Give an account of the Act of Settlement. Who was the Princess Sophia? What was the most important event of the reign of Queen Anne? What plan was proposed? How were difficulties finally adjusted? Give an account of Queen Anne's female favorites. What political change occurred when the Lady Masham's influence was completely established? Relate the circumstances of Queen Anne's death. What at last was done by the ministers of the queen when she was near death?

VIII. The Age of Louis XIV.

1. On the death of Henry IV, his son Louis XIII being then only nine years old, Mary de Medici was made regent by those who expected through her to govern France. She was unfit to hold the reins of government, especially at a time when they required a firm and vigorous hand. Misrule had brought confusion and distress. The powerful nobles meditated revolt. A meeting of the States General was called, which proved memorable as the last of these national assemblies previous to the French Revolution. But this measure was productive of no effect in removing the grievances of the kingdom.

1610.

2. The young king was stirred up by his favorite to resentment against the Italian favorites of his mother. Richelieu, bishop of Lucon, and afterwards cardinal, effected a reconciliation between her and her son. With her aid he raised a powerful opposition to Louis.

3. The Huguenots, displeased at an attempt of the king to establish the Catholic religion, called an assembly at Rochelle, intending, as is supposed, to establish a republic. The command of the royal army was given to a Huguenot who had embraced the Catholic faith. The northern provinces which had followed the doctrines of the Reformation were reduced; but at the siege of Montauban', the Royalists were defeated with the loss of a great part of their army. In the following year a treaty was concluded between the monarch and his Protestant

1621.

subjects, which arranged their affairs as they had been in the year before.

4. Mary procured, though not without difficulty, a seat in the king's council for Richelieu. Thenceforward the genius of the cardinal obtained an entire ascendency over both monarch and ministers; and he became, in fact, master not only of France, but in a measure, as we have seen, director of the destinies of Europe. The aim of his policy was to elevate the monarchy of France; and to this end he wished first to destroy the power of the Huguenots, whom he disliked as heretics, and whose assemblies he regarded as the prolific source of sedition and insurrection; second, to humble the high nobility; and third, to check the grasping power of the house of Austria.

5. He concluded an alliance with England by the marriage of Henrietta, youngest daughter of Henry IV, to Charles, the prince of Wales. He shortly afterwards violated the treaty last concluded with the Huguenots; and having provoked them to rebel while they were unprepared for war, he defeated their plans. At last he made an agreement with them, favorable to the crown. To humble the house of Austria, he formed first a secret alliance with Gustavus Adolphus; and afterwards, at the death of that monarch, he openly joined the Swedes. Had his abilities been more under the direction of that benevolence which loves all mankind, or even of that justice which refuses to injure one class and benefit another, France would have had more cause to bless his memory. As it was, *his talents were employed to crush the rights of the people.* He laid the foundation of the grandeur and absolute dominion of Louis XIV and, in the reaction, of the bloody French Revolution.

1643.

6. The peace of Westphalia left the conflicting claims of France and Spain unsettled, and the war between these two powers still continued. Louis XIV being a minor, the reins of the government were held by his mother, Anne of Austria, who was guided entirely by the councils of Cardinal Mazarin, the successor of Richelieu. Paris was filled with seditious spirits, and the intrigues of the capital soon plunged the nation in civil war.

1648.

7. After five years of civil strife the French nation, without having advanced one step towards freedom, again humbly submitted itself to the royal authority. Louis XIV, though young, assumed

the government, and entered Paris triumphant. He was welcomed by the acclamations of his people. Condé repaired to Spain. No clamors for the assembling of the States were heard, and Louis directed the Parliament of Paris to presume no more to interfere with his affairs. After this period the French king exercised unlimited power. The Spanish war had languished, but now it was prosecuted with vigor. The successes of the hostile nations were nearly equal until Mazarin obtained for Louis the alliance of Cromwell, who now governed the Commonwealth of England. In consequence of this treaty, 6,000 English joined the French army in Flanders. Dunkirk fell before their united strength, and was assigned to the English. France was extended in territory, her nobles were humbled, and the house of Austria was weakened. But it was the day of their sunshine, which engendered the storm of the Revolution, that at length overthrew them.

1658.

8. While England and the United Provinces had been weakening each other by mutual hostilities, Louis XIV was maturing plans for the aggrandizement of the French monarchy by taking from Spain her provinces on his northern frontier. The Spaniards were unprepared for the invasion, and town after town fell before the French. The rapid successes of Louis alarmed the other powers; and the English, Dutch, and Swedes united against him in a league called the "Triple Alliance," which left to the French monarch the conquests he had made, but compelled him to relinquish all other claims upon the Spanish provinces.

1665.

9. Louis, however, determined to take a future occasion to revenge himself upon Holland for the share she had taken in obstructing his ambitious views; and he also sought to detach England from the triple alliance. The wants and weakness of Charles I, king of England, led him to the shameful measure of a secret treaty by which he agreed to assist the king of France in conquering the United Provinces and the Low Countries; to embrace publicly the Catholic faith, and to establish it in his kingdom; and in payment for these services he was to receive from Louis the sum of 200,000 pounds, besides an annual subsidy; and in case of a rebellion in England, a military force.

10. Charles, keeping the treaty which he had formed a secret, obtained from his unsuspecting Parliament the largest supply that

the Commons had ever granted to a king, in order to enable him to sustain the engagements under which the triple alliance placed the English nation. He then, acting according to his secret treaty, ordered an attack upon a Dutch fleet from Smyrna, valued at two millions sterling; and shortly after, on frivolous pretexts, he declared war against Holland. The combined English and French fleets amounted to more than a hundred sail, while the army collected by Louis numbered 120,000, commanded by the ablest generals of the age.

11. The Dutch, relying on the faith of the treaties, were not prepared with a sufficient military force. The strength of the republicans was also weakened by dissensions among themselves. William, Prince of Orange, was appointed commander-in-chief of the army. De Witt, whose authority was now declining, sought to recover it, and to inspirit the States to some great naval operation. He equipped a fleet, which, under Admiral De Ruyter, came up with the united fleets of the English and French, as they lay at anchor in Solbay. De Ruyter attacked them; but obtaining no decisive advantage, he retreated to the coast of Holland, whither he was pursued by the English admiral. The Prince of Orange with his small army retreated, and in a few weeks all the provinces except Holland and Zealand, had submitted to the conqueror.

12. This crisis aroused the citizens of Amsterdam and of the whole province of Holland, and every hand was nerved. The populace were taken into pay. Ships were stationed in the harbor, and the Dutch consigned their fertile fields and flourishing villages to destruction, opening the sluices of their canals, and inundating the country to save the city. In the frenzy of the times the people, feeling the necessity of an acknowledged sovereign and blaming the two De Witts, by whose influence the office of stadtholder had been abolished, now rose in fury, imprisoned them, and put them to death; and now they invested the Prince of Orange with the dignity of stadtholder. The French were compelled to evacuate their conquests and retreat. In the following year the Parliament of England compelled Charles II to abandon his shameful French alliance, and to make peace with Holland.

13. Louis began to fear the result of the combination against him, and bribed the king of England to prorogue his Parliament, lest it should compel him to unite in the confederacy. Several

naval battles were fought, in one of which De Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, was killed. Negotiations for peace were entered into at
1678. Nimuegen in 1678, the Dutch retaining their former territories.

14. In the meantime France gained by the efforts of the Jesuit missionaries the prospect of a great empire in America. In 1640 they founded Montreal, to gain a starting point for their great effort to convert and subjugate the natives. These resolute and self-denying soldiers of the cross carried their discoveries up the Ottawa, the St. Lawrence, and the great lakes, and down the Mississippi.

15. In Germany the Emperor Leopold was alarmed by a rebellion of the Hungarians, who were aided by the Turks. Mahomet IV, then on the Ottoman throne, invaded the empire with *the most formidable force that the Turks had ever sent*
1683. *against Christendom.* His army entered Germany, and laid siege to Vienna. The suburbs were destroyed, and nothing less than the surrender of the city was expected, when the renowned John Sobieski, king of Poland, whose alliance the emperor had obtained, arrived before the Turkish camp. A battle ended in the precipitate flight of the Turks, and the relief of the distressed city. Among the spoils of the Turkish camp was found the celebrated standard of Mahomet, which was presented by the captors to the pope. In other battles the Turks and Hungarians were defeated, and Hungary was restored to the empire.

16. At this period Louis lost his great minister Colbert, who by his patronage of manufactures and commerce, and by his skill in managing the revenue of the kingdom, had enabled his monarch to maintain such wars, and to erect magnificent edifices. Colbert had patronized and protected the Huguenots. Louis was himself
1685. a bigot, and he was now encouraged by Louvois, the successor of Colbert, to commence a religious persecution, in the course of which he *revoked the Edict of Nantes,* passed by Henry IV. The Protestants were ordered to declare themselves converted by a day appointed. Of those who were refractory the leaders were broken on the wheel, while the common people were hanged. The penalty of death was also enacted against those who attempted to emigrate. Yet, notwithstanding, 50,000 families abandoned their country. Louis thus stained his character, and greatly injured France; for by means of these emigrations *the*

French skill in manufactures was carried to other countries, while a great amount of wealth and industry was lost to their own.

17. *From this period the power of Louis began to decline.* The French Protestants carried with them a hatred of their king, which they infused into the hearts of their brethren in the neighboring kingdoms. A league of the princes belonging to the German empire was formed at Augsburg, for preventing the further encroachments of France; and with them Holland, Spain, and finally England, united. Louis exerted his utmost vigor in preparing to withstand his numerous and powerful enemies.

1686.

18. In the succeeding campaign William, Prince of Orange, then king of England, who at the commencement of the war was engaged in settling the affairs of that realm, resumed the command in Flanders. The parties were at length desirous of peace, and a congress under the mediation of Charles XI, now king of Sweden, assembled at Ryswick to settle the terms. The basis of the treaty was the restoration of all places taken during the war. France recognized William as king of England.

1697.

19. The peace of Ryswick had scarcely quieted the hostilities between the European powers when jarring claims and intrigues arose concerning the succession to the Spanish crown, which eventually produced war. Charles II, the reigning monarch of Spain, had no children; and the feeble state of his health gave reason to expect the immediate vacancy of the throne. Louis XIV, the Emperor Leopold, and the elector of Bavaria, each possessed claims to the succession on account of descent in the maternal line of the royal family of Spain. The balance of power in Europe, it was said, required that neither the house of Austria nor that of Bourbon should obtain such an accession of strength as the acquisition of the Spanish monarchy would give. The desire of aggrandizing his family at length overcame every other consideration in the mind of Louis. He accepted the will, and caused the Duke of Anjou, his grandson, to be crowned as Philip V.

1700.

20. England and Holland, though highly dissatisfied by the want of faith which Louis had displayed, did not consider it for their interest to engage in war, and reluctantly acknowledged the title of Philip; but the emperor of Germany prepared for imme-

diate hostilities, and dispatched an army under Prince Eugene into Italy, to enforce his claim to Milan.

21. England, Holland, and the empire declared war against France on the same day. The German princes, generally, were in
1702. the league. Frederic, the elector of Brandenburg, had been won by receiving from the emperor the title of king of Prussia. This is *the first acknowledgment of Prussia as a kingdom.* During the first campaign, operations were not on a great scale. In Italy and on the Upper Rhine the French arms were successful; but in Flanders the allies, commanded by the Duke of Marlborough, made themselves masters of several places.

22. Prince Eugene united his army to that of Marlborough, and a great battle was fought between the allies and the French
1704. and Bavarians, near the village of Blenheim. The hostile armies were nearly equal in strength, each numbering about 80,000 men; but the superior military skill of Marlborough and Eugene gave them the victory. This success relieved the emperor, and put the allies in possession of the country from the Danube to the Rhine. The operations of the French, however, were successful in other quarters. In Italy their arms triumphed; and also in Portugal, where the war on the part of the allies was conducted by the Archduke Charles, who had assumed the title of king of Spain. The death of the Emperor Leopold, which occurred the following year, placed his son Joseph upon the imperial throne, but did not affect the policy of the court.

23. In the next campaign Marlborough, at the head of the English and Dutch, obtained at Ramillies an important victory
1705. over the French under Marechal Villeroy. This victory enabled Marlborough to conquer Brabant and almost all of Spanish Flanders. Louis XIV, now perceiving the distress to which his great expenditures were reducing his kingdom, made proposals of peace to the other powers, which, chiefly through the ambition of Marlborough and Eugene, were rejected. The war therefore continued, and Louis, though greatly embarrassed, prepared to carry it on with vigor. The advantages of this campaign were mainly on the side of France.

24. During the next year the English were roused to more vigorous exertions, by an attempt of Louis to convey the young
1708. pretender, "James III," to Scotland; but the vigilance of Admiral Byng prevented his landing. Marlborough

was now in Flanders. At Oudenarde a battle was fought between the forces under him and the French army under the Duke of Vendome, where again the confederates were victorious. Soon after this Prince Eugene took the city of Lisle, which he had besieged two months. Ghent and Bruges, of which the Duke of Vendome had obtained possession in the early part of the campaign, were now recovered by the confederates.

25. Louis again made liberal proposals of peace, which were again rejected. Not only were his armies unfortunate, but his
1709. subjects were suffering from a grievous famine, and his finances were exhausted. This monarch, by his regal munificence and his imposing qualities of person and character, was the idol of his subjects, to whom they willingly sacrificed their blood and treasure. By his patronage of literature he had the talents and genius of France in his interest. Hence the rejection of a proffered peace left him no hope but in the successful prosecution of the war. At the close of another campaign the French king renewed his solicitations for peace, but the demands of the allies were so exorbitant as to preclude all hope of reconciliation, and the negotiations were broken off.

26. Two events took place later, which tended to produce a cessation of hostilities. The Emperor Joseph dying, his brother,
1711. the Archduke Charles, was raised to the imperial dignity; and as it was inconsistent with the avowed object of the Grand Alliance to permit the throne of two nations to be occupied by one monarch, Charles was now considered as disqualified for the throne of Spain. A change had been effected in the British ministry, by which the Tories had acquired the ascendency in the court of Anne, and a speedy change of measures might be expected. Marlborough was indeed continued in office,
1712. but it was evident that his influence was on the decline. Negotiations were entered into in the next year between the English and French courts; Marlborough was recalled and dismissed from his offices.

27. Conferences were opened at Utrecht, and treaties of peace were signed by all the belligerent powers except the emperor and
1713. the king of Spain. By the terms of these treaties Philip V was secure on the throne of Spain, on condition of his renouncing for himself and descendants all claim upon the crown of France. *The Rhine was to be the established*

boundary between Germany and France. Gibraltar and Minorca were to remain in possession of the English. Hudson's Bay and straits, the town of Placentia in Newfoundland, Nova Scotia in North America, and the island of St. Christopher in the West Indies, were also to be ceded to that government by France. Luxembourg, Namur, and Charleroy were given to the United Provinces; and Lisle, Aire, Bethune, and St. Vincent were restored to France.

28. As the emperor refused his assent to the treaty, the war between the empire and France continued. Turning all their strength against him, the French were now successful in their operations; and the following year, Charles VI was forced to conclude a peace at Rastadt, on less favorable terms than had been offered him at Utrecht.

1714.

29. The reign of Louis XIV closed in the following year. For nearly three quarters of a century he had been the titular king of France, and for full half a century he had been an absolute ruler. His courtiers called him "Louis the Great," but history has not accepted of this title. "Great in sinful extravagance, great in love of pomp and show, great in selfishness and irreligion, he was perhaps the most remarkable specimen of a royal fool that the world has ever seen."

QUESTIONS.—Who administered the government of France after the death of Henry IV? What is here said of the States General? Through what remarkable person did Mary regain some degree of influence? What was now done by the Hungarians? What is it supposed that they intended? What measures were taken to oppose them, and with what success? To whom did Richelieu owe his election to a seat in the king's council? What did he soon become? What was the aim of his policy? What three impediments did he wish to destroy, as being in the way of the aggrandizement of the French crown? What marriage was negotiated? How did Richelieu treat the Huguenots? What measures did he take to humble the House of Austria? What remarks are made on Richelieu's services to his country? What powers were at war after the treaty of Westphalia? Who was regent of France? Who was the successor of Richelieu as first minister? What was the state of Paris? How long did the wars with the French nation continue? What did they gain by these wars? How did they receive Louis XIV on his assuming sovereignty? Was anything said of assembling a national legislature? What did the French monarchy become? How did the war with Spain proceed? Whose aid turned the scale? What is said of Dunkirk? What advantage of the weak state of the Spanish monarchy was the king of France preparing to take? What

nations were alarmed at his grasping spirit? What alliance did they form? Did the king of France make this treaty in good faith? What treaty was made by him with Charles II? What nations were now united with Louis against the Dutch? What double dealing did Charles practice with his Parliament? What attack did he order? What fleet and army were collected against the Dutch? What was now the condition of the Dutch? Who was made commander of the army? Relate the naval operations. What provinces were left to the Dutch? What was now the conduct of the citizens of Amsterdam? Whom of their own patriots did they destroy? Who now aided the Dutch? What did the English Parliament compel the king to do? For what did Louis bribe Charles? By what peace were the next battles closed? How did it leave the Dutch in point of territory? What city did the Jesuit missionaries make their starting point? What rivers did they explore? What was their object? Who was emperor, and what cause of alarm had he? Who was the Turkish sultan? What success had the Turks gained? Relate what was done by the king of Poland? What was presented to the pope? Give an account of the arrangements of Colbert? In what respect was Louvois different, and what did the king do, in part through his influence? What cruelties were now exercised against the Huguenots? In what respect did these enormities injure Louis and his kingdom? Had the revocation of the Edict of Nantes and the persecution a permanent effect on the power of Louis? What league was now formed? Give an account of the peace of Ryswick. How did Charles II of Spain finally leave the succession, and what followed? What course was taken by the nations in reference to the accession of the Bourbon prince to the Spanish throne? Between what nations was the Grand Alliance formed? Give the principal events of the first campaign. Where had the French been successful? What is said of the battle of Ramillies? What did the king of France now desire to do? What is said of the battle of Oudenarde?—of the remaining transactions of the campaign? What remarks are here made concerning Louis? From what two events was peace expected? Of what was the Rhine to be the boundary? What accession of territory did England receive? What was confirmed? Between what powers was the Treaty of Rastadt?

IX. The Rise of Russia and Prussia.

1. Peter I, Czar of Muscovy, or Russia, which had been deemed an Asiatic and barbarous land, now came into prominence in European affairs. He turned a covetous eye upon the provinces which Russia had once owned upon the Baltic, but had ceded to Sweden. Charles XII of Sweden, "the Madman of the North," at the age of fifteen had succeeded his father Charles XI in that monarchy; and not only Peter but other surrounding sovereigns had believed that this would be a favorable moment for grasping its possessions. Peter entered into a league

1689.

against Sweden with Frederic IV, the reigning sovereign of Denmark, and Augustus of Saxony, now raised to the throne of Poland. While Peter desired some of the provinces of Charles which would give him a port on the Baltic coast, Augustus wished to obtain Swedish Livonia; and Frederic IV of Denmark had a grudge against Charles of Sweden, who had taken part with
1700. Frederic's enemy, the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp. The Danes invaded the territories of the duke. Charles carried the war into Denmark, and besieged Copenhagen. The Danish king, reduced to great distress, obtained the mediation of England and France, and a peace was concluded between Denmark and Sweden, which was highly honorable to the latter.

2. In the meantime the Russians had commenced hostilities, and laid siege to Narva. Charles now advanced to the defense
1701. of that part of his kingdom; and although the Russian army numbered 80,000 men, he, with 8,000 attacked their camp, defeated them, and relieved Narva. The army of Augustus was stationed on the banks of the Dwina, where Charles,
1702. after forcing the passage of the river, encountered them and obtained a complete victory. With rapid strides he then marched through Courland and Lithuania. At Birsen, the town in which Peter and Augustus a few months previously had planned his destruction, he now formed the resolution to dethrone the king of Poland. The hostile monarchs met at Glissau; and the heroic Swede, though with but half the number of troops, defeated the king of Poland. Charles assembled a diet at Warsaw, which under his influence deposed Augustus and elevated Stanislaus Leczinski, an accomplished Pole of noble birth.

3. The Czar Peter, in the meantime, had improved the discipline of his armies, and increased their strength; and he had
1707. conquered Ingria, Livonia, and the city of Narva. In the newly conquered country and on a desert island, which the long winter of that climate rendered almost inaccessible, he had laid the foundation of a new city, St. Petersburg, designed
1703. for the royal residence; and to this he transported in less than five years 300,000 inhabitants.

4. Poland being subdued, Charles, confident of success and resolving to attack his Russian enemy in the heart of his own dominions, directed his march to Moscow; but the roads, by Peter's order, were destroyed, and the country desolated. Finding

himself obstructed on the route first attempted, and receiving a promise of succor from Mazeppa, the chief of the Cossacks, Charles next endeavored to penetrate to the capital of Russia through the Ukraine. At Pulto'wa, he engaged the Russian army, consisting of more than 70,000 men, under the eye of the Czar. Charles, so often the conqueror, here suffered an entire defeat. With only 300 guards he escaped wounded from the field, went to Bender, and put himself under the protection of the Turks.

5. Augustus had declared that the treaty which Charles had extorted from him was void, and he renewed his claim to the crown of Poland. The Czar supported his pretensions, entered Poland with an army, and reinstated him in the regal authority. Denmark declared war anew with Sweden. Peter laid claim to several of its provinces, and the King of Prussia to others; and nothing but the interposition of the southern powers of Europe prevented the dismemberment of the Swedish kingdom.

6. Charles was received by the Turks with great hospitality, and employed himself in seeking to engage the Ottoman Porte in war with Russia. The Porte showed its disposition to gratify his wishes, by imprisoning the Russian ambassador. Peter, when informed of this, advanced upon Turkey at the head of 40,000 men. He fortified his camp on the banks of the Pruth, where he was besieged by the two hostile armies. The Turks now attacked him, and for three days kept the Russians fighting. The Russian numbers had wasted by nearly one-half. Their provisions failed; and Peter retired in despair to his tent, forbidding any one to follow him. The Czarina Catherine,[1] with the wives of several of the officers, had accompanied the Russian army. She bethought herself of a last resource. The Turkish vizier might perhaps receive offers of peace, if a suitable present could be made him. Otherwise he could not be approached. She bought of all the ladies their jewelry, on pledge of future payment, and to these added her own. She then approached the irritable Peter, who, seeing a gleam of hope, was pleased and grateful. The vizier received Catherine's messenger, and sent back an answer of peace; and Peter and his army were saved, he giving up his ports on the sea of Azof.

1711.

7. Meanwhile the affairs of Sweden continued to suffer. The

[1] Catherine was a poor orphan girl, but was attractive, and above all good tempered. She was taken prisoner by a Russian army; and from such beginnings rose to be empress of Russia.

refusal of Charles to subscribe to a treaty which the emperor and maritime powers had formed kept alive the war in Sweden. Charles was troublesome to the Turks, who, though they desired not to violate the laws of hospitality, yet requested him to leave their dominions, and at last resorted to force, but still without effect. At length he was induced to return to his kingdom. He arrived at Stralsund in Pomera'nia, five years after the battle of Pultowa.

8. The czar, whose navy had acquired considerable strength, commanded the Baltic, and now besieged him with a small army which he had collected in Stralsund. The place was taken by storm. Charles escaped in a small vessel, passed safely through the Danish fleet, and landed in Sweden. Fifteen years had passed since the monarch had left his capital, bent on the conquest of the world. In his humbled fortunes he did not choose to revisit it, but passed the winter at Carlscroon. Undaunted amid all his reverses, and unsated with blood, he still thought but of war. While his numerous enemies had made themselves masters of all his provinces, and threatened to destroy Sweden itself, Charles invaded Norway, and made the useless conquest of Christiania, which he was soon forced to abandon. However, for a second time he invaded that kingdom; and while watching the attack of his soldiers upon Fredericshall, he was struck on the head by a cannon ball, and expired without a groan.

1714.

1718.

9. Peter took the title of "Emperor of all the Russias," which has been retained by all his successors. He made an excursion to the Caspian, intending to attack Persia, but returned after having founded a city. His second wife, Catherine, who had been raised from the poorest of the peasantry, was crowned empress during the lifetime of her husband, and on his death she succeeded by his will to the government of the Russian empire, as Catherine I.

1721.

10. The emperor Charles VI, who had no sons, desired to secure the succession of the Austrian territories, his hereditary domain, to his daughter Maria Theresa. With this in view he put forth his "Pragmatic Sanction," securing the succession of female heirs, having previously obtained the assent of his hereditary States in the empire. To this he now sought by negotiation to add

the approval of the other European powers, which he finally obtained.

11. The emperor believed that he had secured to his daughter his rich Austrian possessions, including the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia. But the Pragmatic Sanction, which they had guaranteed, proved a feeble barrier against the selfishness and ambition which ruled in the hearts of the neighboring monarchs. The death of Charles was immediately followed by claims from the elector of Bavaria to the kingdom of Bohemia; and of Augustus, elector of Saxony, now king of Poland, to the whole Austrian territories, and by other antiquated demands. Nevertheless Maria Theresa took possession of her inheritance, and received the most flattering homage; particularly from her Hungarian subjects, with whom her dignified and conciliating manners had rendered her extremely popular. She had married Francis of Lorraine, grand Duke of Tuscany, and she greatly desired his elevation to the imperial throne.

1740.

12. Prussia had now become a kingdom of considerable strength and importance. An immense treasure amassed by the parsimony of its first king, Frederic William, and an army of sixty thousand men, had passed under the control of his son Frederic II, who was now eager to employ the power and wealth of which he was master to enlarge his territories. His heart was bent chiefly on obtaining Silesia, which belonged to Maria Theresa. At the head of a powerful army he marched into the territory, and then offered to support her claims in other quarters on condition of her peaceably relinquishing to him Lower Silesia. She rejected his offer, and prepared to resist his usurpation. Their armies met at Moll'witz. The Prussians obtained a victory, and the whole province of Silesia submitted to Frederic.

1741.

13. His successes awakened the ambition of the French court. A treaty was formed between Louis XV, Frederic of Prussia, and Charles, elector of Bavaria, by which it was agreed to divide the Austrian inheritance, and to place the elector of Bavaria on the imperial throne. The Bavarian and French forces entered Upper Austria and, advancing upon Vienna, compelled Maria Theresa to retire to Hungary. The generous Hungarians, aroused by the wrongs of their sovereign, swore "We will die for our *king*, Maria

Theresa." From the other parts of her dominions also, powerful armies rallied to her standard. The elector, on account of the lateness of the season and the strength of Vienna, turned towards the Prague, which was taken, and he was there crowned king of Bohemia. Proceeding to Frankfort, he was in that city elected emperor of Germany, under the title of Charles VII. An army of the queen now invaded the Bavarian territories.

14. Frederic, regardless of his allies, entered into a treaty with Maria Theresa at Breslau. She granted him Upper and Lower Silesia, the object of his desires, and he engaged to remain neutral. The neutrality of Poland was also purchased by a grant of new territories, and the emperor was reduced to distress. At Dettingen the British, Hanoverian, and Austrian troops, under the eye of George II, maintained a sanguinary contest with the French, and defeated them. The king of Sardinia now became an ally of Maria Theresa.

15. These successes of the queen, and the haughtiness with which she rejected every proposal of peace, led to a new coalition against her. The king of Prussia invaded Bohemia. The emperor was in danger of being driven again from his capital, when death put an end to his hopes and fears. Maximilian, his son, now entered into a treaty with the queen of Hungary, by which he agreed that her husband should be made emperor, she engaging to put him in possession of his hereditary estates. Francis of Lorraine was accordingly elected emperor at Frankfort, under the title of Francis I.

16. The armies of Prussia continued the war in Silesia and Bohemia; but after Frederic had obtained two decisive and bloody victories, one near Friedberg in Silesia and the other at Sorr in Bohemia, a treaty of peace was made at Dresden, by which he acknowledged the validity of Francis's election, and was confirmed in the possession of Silesia. Maria Theresa, having made peace with Prussia, was ready to turn the whole force of her arms against France and Spain.

1745.

17. Louis now turned his thoughts towards peace, which the situation of his kingdom, notwithstanding his late victories, rendered necessary. A congress was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, and a treaty formed, on the basis of mutual restitution. Thus was closed, "The Eight Years' War," during which blood flowed freely

to gratify a few crowned heads, who sent armies to be slaughtered with as little compunction as they would have moved the pawns upon a chess board—and often for purposes worse than idle. This war began with Frederic's desire to rob a young queen of her honest inheritance, which he had agreed to respect; and it ended with his consummating the robbery.

1748.

18. Austria formed an alliance with France, Russia, and Sweden; and Prussia, an alliance with England. The alliance of the Empress Maria Theresa with France, the ancient and hereditary enemy of the house of Austria, for the purpose of invading a part of the empire, is accounted for by her animosity towards Frederic of Prussia for seizing Silesia, and her desire not only to recover it, but to make reprisals.

19. The Russians, French, and Swedes, had invaded Prussia, but the martial genius of Frederic did not desert him. Assembling another army, he offered battle to the French and Imperialists at Rosbach, where he obtained a complete victory. He then marched and met the army of the Austrians in Silesia, under Prince Charles, and at Leuthen was again victorious. The Russians meanwhile had retired into their own country, and the Prussian army which had been opposed to them, being left at liberty, turned against the Swedes, and recovered many of their conquests in Pomerania.

20. The king of Prussia in the next campaign besieged Olmutz; but after four weeks he turned his forces against the Russians, who had invaded Brandenburg. He obtained a victory over them, and compelled them to retreat into Poland. The succeeding campaign opened upon Frederic with a reverse. The Russians again advanced upon Silesia, and made themselves masters of Frankfort upon the Oder. Yet so skillful were Frederic's manœuvres that the Russians did not hazard the attack of Berlin, and he soon appeared again in the field with a formidable force.

1758.

21. Meantime Prince Ferdinand, with the British and Hanoverian forces, drew the French into an engagement at Minden, and completely defeated them. A Russian army was to join the Austrians in Silesia. To prevent this junction was now the object of Frederic, and at Lignitz he drew the Austrians into a battle before the arrival of the Russians, and defeated them. The Russians on learning this repassed the Oder, but sent a strong detachment into Brandenburg, where they joined the Austrians and made themselves masters of Berlin. Frederic passed into Saxony,

and at Torqua defeated the Austrians under marshal Daun. This victory resulted in the recovery of nearly the whole of Saxony, where the Prussian king established his winter quarters.

22. A sudden and unexpected event occurred in the death of Elizabeth of Russia, which relieved Frederic from a dreaded and inveterate enemy. Her nephew Peter III succeeded, who allied himself with the hero of Prussia, now called "Frederic the Great."

1762. Russia and Sweden also entered into an alliance with him; and the Prussian king found himself at liberty to turn his whole strength against the Austrians. But another revolution occurred in Russia. Peter III, by his numerous innovations in the internal administration of his kingdom, as well as by his alliance with Frederic, had occasioned great discontent in his

1762. empire. Domestic dissension was added to the evils which surrounded him; and his empress, Catherine, headed a conspiracy among the disaffected among the clergy, nobility, and army. Peter was dethroned, imprisoned, and probably murdered; and his wife was invested with the supreme power as Catherine II. She did not resume the policy of the Empress Elizabeth; but while she recalled the Russians from the service of Frederic, she preserved for the nation a strict neutrality.

23. Frederic continued the war with increased energy. He recovered Silesia, and invaded Bohemia and Franconia. The

1763. British had been successful at sea and in America. Negotiations had been in progress between England, France, and Spain; and a peace was now concluded in Paris. Here Canada was ceded to Great Britain; also all the western side of the Mississippi except New Orleans and its territories, the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon near Newfoundland, and Florida.[1] Great Britain made some concessions to France in the partition of the West India Islands. Shortly after this treaty another was made between Prussia, Austria, and Saxony, at Hubertsburg, which closed the "Seven Years' War." *Silesia was finally ceded to Prussia;* all conquests were restored, and each power returned to the boundaries it possessed at the opening of the war. This war had not only devastated the fair plains of Europe and drunk the blood of myriads of her sons, but it had spread destruction through her dependencies in Asia and America, thus stretching over more than half the circuit of the globe.

[1] Florida, ceded by Spain to England, was restored 1783.

24. In Poland the error of electing a foreign monarch had led the way to a system of foreign interference. Augustus II, elector of Saxony, had triumphed over Stanislaus Leczinski, the Polish king, by the aid of Russian and Austrian arms. Still there existed in Poland a powerful party who deprecated foreign influence, and desired a Pole for their monarch. On the death of Augustus, Catherine of Russia turned this sentiment to the advantage of Stanislaus Poniatowiski, a native whose personal appearance and prepossessing manners had procured for him her favor, but whose character and habits unfitted him for the station. He having been proposed by the empress, to fill the Polish throne, Russian soldiers sent to enforce his election surrounded the senate house where the diet was assembled.

1764-1765.

25. The partisans of Poniatowiski, supported by the Russian arms, proceeded to an illegal election, and the minion of Catherine was made king. After the coronation she maintained an ambassador at Warsaw, by whose means she governed the monarch, 20,000 Russian troops being scattered over the country.

26. The Poles next solicited and obtained the aid of the Turks. They soon learned that a league had been concluded between Maria Theresa of Austria, Catherine of Russia, and Frederic of Prussia; and that these royal thieves had taken the greater part of their country, and divided it among themselves, annexing their several portions to their own dominions. The contemptible Poniatowiski, who was entirely under their control, was by them made sovereign of the remainder. Protestations were sent to the other powers of Europe, but were unheeded. The patriot chiefs being obliged to flee, Pulaski crossed the ocean and sacrificed his life in the cause of the American independence. *The partition of Poland has found no justifiers,* even among those who have considered the many wars in which Europe has been involved, as justifiable on the ground of maintaining the balance of power. The great plan of Henry IV of France, had it been established, would not, like the American constitution, have guaranteed to the people their rights of self-government, but it would have given them much security against war, and would have saved the blood of countless thousands.

1769.

1771.

QUESTIONS.—What did Peter now covet, and why did he and his neighboring kings think it would be a good time to get what belonged to another country? What three powers leagued against Sweden? What two

were aiding Charles XII? What resolution was made by Charles? What was next done in regard to the Polish election? How was Augustus situated? What had Czar Peter done in the meantime in respect to his army? What conquests had he made? What city had he founded, and what number of inhabitants placed in it? Describe the course taken by Charles. What was the consequence of Charles's defeat in Poland with other powers? What was done in Turkey at the instigation of Charles? What was done by the czar, in consequence? Describe the situation of Peter at the Pruth? How was his army saved? What was the conduct of Charles towards the Turks? What happened on his return to Sweden? What course did he take after his escape from Stralsund? Where and how did his death occur? What new title did Peter take? What attempts did Peter make? What was done by Charles VI to secure his daughter's succession? By whom was Leczinski chosen, and to what sovereignty? What dominions did Charles VI leave to his daughter? Why did not the Pragmatic Sanction insure her a peaceable succession? Who of her subjects seemed most attached to her? Whom did she marry? How did Prussia become strong in its army and treasury? Who was Frederic William's successor, and on what was he bent? What was his conduct in respect to his unoffending fellow-sovereign, Maria Theresa? How did she receive his offer? What battle followed, and what was its result? What treaty was now formed against Maria Theresa? How did the allies commence hostilities? Relate the movements of the elector of Bavaria till he became emperor? Where, in the meantime, was Maria Theresa, and what subjects did she find faithful? Who were the parties to the treaty of Breslau, and what were its conditions? Whom besides Frederic did Maria Theresa bribe to be neutral? What is said of the battle of Dettingen? What ally now joined the cause of the queen? By what peace did Frederic again desert his allies? Did he serve his own purpose by gaining the province he desired? Where did a congress assemble? What were the conditions of the peace? What is said regarding the Eight Years' War? What two alliances were next formed? Relate the last events of the second campaign, including two battles. What other three battles now occurred in Europe? What is said of the battle of Minden?—of Legnitz?—of Torqua? What was now Frederic's position? What sovereign of Russia had carried on this war against the Prussians? When Peter III succeeded Elizabeth, what change occurred in regard to the relations of the northern powers with Prussia? What countermovements took place in the succeeding reign? Who were the parties to the peace of Paris? What were its conditions? What other treaty soon followed? Who were the parties and what the conditions? Of what great mistake had the Polish electors been guilty? What did it produce? How did Augustus III prevail over Stanislaus Leczinski? Were all the Poles satisfied? What was done by the empress of Russia? Who was made king of Poland, and by what means was his election carried? Who was virtually the sovereign of Poland? Who were the royal thieves here spoken of? What did they take to which they had no right? Who was

sovereign of the remainder? Has the partition of Poland been justified? What is said of the plan of Henry IV of France?

X. The House of Hanover[1] in Great Britain.

1. On the death of Queen Anne, the last of the Stuart sovereigns, the crown of Great Britain passed to her distant cousin George, who was the elector of Hanover, a State of the empire. He was a German, but was a great-grandson of James I of England.

The setting aside of Queen Anne's half-brother, known as the Pretender, was effected in order to insure the succession of Protestants only, as the Act of Settlement frankly indicated. There were in Great Britain many who were still attached to the ancient belief in the divine right of kings, and who were led by their scruples to desire the restoration of the crown to the Stuarts. These were termed "Jacobites," the name being derived from *Jacobus,* the Latin form of *James.*

2. Besides the Jacobites there were two other great parties in Great Britain—the Whigs and the Tories. It would have been good policy for King George to conciliate all these parties. Instead of this, he committed himself unreservedly to the Whigs, who committed acts of flagrant injustice to their rivals. The Tories were prostrated. Many of them were deprived of their estates, and some were executed. St. John (Lord Bolingbroke) and Lord Ormond, who had stood high in the favor of the late queen, were attainted of high treason, and reduced to poverty. Lord Oxford, though suffering with disease, was unmercifully confined in the Tower, for the alleged crime of advising the late queen to conclude the peace of Utrecht. The people believed that such a charge was but a mere pretext of the unprincipled minister Sir Robert Walpole to put out of his way a political opponent by means of legal murder.

3. The Jacobites gained ground. The leaders projected a rebellion, and the Pretender was invited to come home. Louis XIV favored his cause, though not openly. The Earl of Mar, aided by many of the Scottish nobles, took up arms; and the Earl of Derwentwater put himself at the head of a force in the north of England. While the Pretender was preparing to embark, Louis XIV died; and the duke of Orleans, now regent of France, did not favor the enterprise of the Jacobites. The Pretender

[1] The House of Hanover is also known as the House of Brunswick and as the House of Guelf.

arrived in Scotland, and was proclaimed king by his adherents; but finding his cause desperate, and knowing that a heavy price was set upon his head, he returned to France.

4. This reign was the era of the famous speculating project called the "South Sea Bubble." The "South Sea Company" was formed on some pretense of securing advantages in the South Sea[1] trade, but with the real object of obtaining the public stock and becoming the sole creditor of the nation. An enormous amount of South Sea stock was issued in the first place, without any actual capital. Of this, a large amount was given in bribes to insure the coöperation of influential persons. The plan of the schemers succeeded, and the holders of a considerable part of the public debt were induced to exchange their securities for this stock, which rose in the market at one time to 400 per cent. above par. The whole nation seemed seized with the South Sea mania. The government and the Bank of England, as well as innumerable individuals, became deeply involved. At length the bubble burst. The stock sank, to rise no more; and the individuals who had rashly parted with their real property to purchase a nominal value found themselves destitute. The Bank of England was in imminent danger of failure, and public credit was in peril. George I, who had gone on a visit to his Hanoverian dominions, was called home in haste; and he and his Parliament succeeded, with great difficulty, in allaying the evil and setting the wheels of commerce again in motion. But many families were irretrievably ruined, and the national credit and resources were for some years impaired.

1720.

5. George II, who came to the throne in 1727, engaged in alliances with Frederick the Great of Prussia, and with Maria Theresa of Austria, and sent an army under the Duke of Cumberland against the French. Another attempt was made to restore the Stuarts. The Chevalier Charles Edward, son of the Pretender,[2] encouraged by the Jacobites, landed in Scotland. The Highland chieftains and some lowland nobles, joined him with their retainers. At their head the prince marched to Edinburgh, and made himself master

1727.

1745.

[1] The Pacific ocean was commonly called the "South Sea."

[2] The old Pretender had died in exile, and Charles Edward now became known as the "Young Pretender."

of the city. He established himself in Holy Rood Palace, and caused his father to be proclaimed king of Great Britain. He afterwards gained a victory over the king's troops at Preston Pans. Parliament, alarmed, recalled the Duke of Cumberland from the Continental war, and put him at the head of their forces.

6. Meantime Charles Edward made an irruption into England, took the town of Carlisle, and proceeded to Derby. But finding that few of the English Jacobites joined his standard, and learning that extensive preparations were making against him, the disappointed adventurer retraced his steps. At Falkirk he obtained another advantage over the royal troops; but Cumberland, who followed him, gained a bloody victory over his adherents at Culloden. From this time the wretched young prince—a heavy price set upon his head—wandered for five months under various disguises. At length he procured a passage to France. The cruel battle of Culloden crushed forever the hopes of the unfortunate Stuarts.

1746.

7. The domestic history of Great Britain during the reign of George II is a catalogue of political knaveries of the minister, Sir Robert Walpole, who did not scruple to spend the public money and increase the national debt that he might practice every species of bribery and corruption which was calculated to keep him in power. At length he became odious to the nation, and changes occurred in the Ministry; but the course of politics was not yet reformed. At about this time began the war with France, which was carried on in the American colonies. At first it was conducted without spirit and without success. At length, in order to prop their sinking credit, the Ministry called to a seat in the Cabinet William Pitt, a leader in Parliament distinguished for his high powers of eloquence. To their surprise, they found that he had accepted the post of honor for the purpose of serving his country, and that neither office nor money could tempt him to countenance measures which he could not conscientiously approve. Rather than do this, he resigned his office and retired. The nation was clamorous in his praise, and petitioned the king to recall him. Pitt was recalled, and made Prime Minister. From this period Great Britain rose rapidly. Men were appointed to office not because they were the creatures of persons in power, but because they were suited to the service and were true friends to their country. France and Great Britain came into collision, in this

period, over difficulties which began in their distant colonies in Asia and in America.

8. At the beginning of the Christian era India was divided into four kingdoms, and subsequently into a larger number. In the tenth century the Turks invaded India; and in the next century Bahram established a kingdom of which the capital was Lahore. In the twelfth century Genghis Khan passed over India, and added it to his conquests. The Mahometan kingdom of Delhi was founded by a Turkish prince who overthrew the kingdom of Lahore. The empire was subverted by Tamerlane, who took and plundered Delhi. Early in the fifteenth century Sayid Khan, his viceroy, became independent, and founded the Afghan Mahometan dynasty in the north. Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, established, in the sixteenth century, a wealthier and more powerful dynasty than had ever ruled in India. This was the Tartar dynasty of the Great Moguls.

1414.

9. In 1600 there were English traders at Sarat, in India. In this year Queen Elizabeth chartered the East India Company, authorizing it to acquire and govern lands in India.

When Charles II married Catherine of Braganza, the Portuguese princess, she presented to the British nation as part of her dowry the Portuguese settlement of Bombay; and thus the British gained a firm foothold in southern Asia.

10. The Mahrattas, an active and energetic people, heretofore but little known, conquered in 1668 a part of the Deccan, and established a kingdom. This kingdom they continued to extend during the next century. The French, under Labourdonnais, governor of the isle of Mauritius, made an attack on the English trading settlement of Madras, and took the place, but restored it at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. The French having possession of Pondicherry, which they still hold.

1668.

Dupleix, its commander, seeing the divided state of the country, attempted by taking part with one of two rivals to seize the Deccan as if for the other, but in reality for the French East India Company. The other party was Mahomet Ali, who appealed to the English. The French had the advantage until Clive, who came from England as a clerk, having manifested military talent, was made captain. He took Arcot and won the battle of Arni; after which a truce was made.

11. The English at Calcutta were now suddenly attacked by

Surajah Dowlah, the sovereign of the province of Bengal, at the head of 50,000 men. The governor vainly resisted, and then escaped on shipboard, leaving behind one hundred and forty-six of the garrison. These were confined in a room not twenty feet square, in a hot night in June, with no water and scarcely a breath of air. In vain they shrieked, for the tyrant had no pity. In this "Black Hole of Calcutta," one hundred and twenty-three men died in the course of the night. India has paid dearly for this cruelty. The company at Madras sent Clive at the head of a small army, who retook Calcutta, and reduced Surajah to terms. The seven years' war now breaking out, the French were again active and Surajah united with them. Clive met his army at Plassey, and with only 1,000 English and 3,000 natives, defeated 70,000. Surajah was taken and put to death, and the British became virtually masters of his territory.

1756.

Thus began the British empire in India. Its permanence was secured when, the British having increased their conquests, the Great Mogul or emperor granted them, at the peace of Allahabad, the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa.

12. In 1760 the crown of Great Britain descended to George III, whose reign was long and disastrous. The English came into collision with Hyder Ali, a powerful chief, who had founded the new kingdom of Mysore. In 1773 Parliament sent Mr. Warren Hastings, as governor-general over the provinces of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. Soon after this, the French settlements at Pondicherry[1] and elsewhere were taken by the English and Hyder Ali, who had ravaged the Carnatic, was completely defeated by Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder was succeeded by his son Tippoo Saib. The English, though he long resisted, at length defeated him; and driving him into Seringapatam they took him by storm; he bravely losing his life in its defense. His treasures, territory, became the prey of the conquerors.

1780.

Warren Hastings was accused of malpractices and recalled to England, where he was impeached by the eloquent Edmund Burke; and being tried before Parliament, he was defended by the idol of the whig party, Charles James Fox, the witty Sheridan, and others. The trial lasted eight years, and the accused was finally acquitted. William Pitt, the younger, now prime minister of England, proposed, and carried through Parliament an

1790.

[1] Afterwards returned to France, to which nation it now belongs.

improved system of government for British India, under the direction of a "Board of Control."

13. Determined to resist the claims which the French put forth to the Ohio valley in America, the British Parliament granted to a company of gentlemen, mostly in Virginia, of whom Lawrence Washington was one, 600,000 acres of land on or near the Ohio river. "The Ohio Company" sent their agents to take possession of the territory. The Marquis du Quesne, governor of Canada, seized and imprisoned those who had erected trading-houses on these lands. Dinwiddie, the English governor of Virginia, sent though in the dead of winter a young officer of twenty-two across the wilderness of the Alleghany mountains, to bear despatches to the French commandant. This young man was George Washington, destined to become the "Father of his Country," and one of the chief lights of history. Major Washington fulfilled his trust by conveying to the French commandant in the vicinity of Lake Erie, Dinwiddie's summons to quit the territory. The French not obeying this mandate, Dinwiddie sent Washington, with a regiment, to enforce it. Although his conduct was gallant, his force was inferior, and he was unsuccessful. The French now proceeded to the erection of a fort at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers; to which they gave the name of Du Quesne.

1750.

14. The British cabinet recommended to the colonies to cultivate friendship with the most powerful tribes of the savages, and to form a union among themselves. Accordingly, a congress of delegates from the colonies of New England, met at Albany, with those from New York, Maryland, and Pennsylvania; and on the 4th of July, 1754, Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, drew up a plan of union, which being approved by the congress, copies were transmitted to the several colonial governments, and to the court of Great Britain. It did not suit the Colonies, because it granted too much power to the crown; it did not suit the English ministry, because it gave too little. Hence it was rejected. Thus was tested that inherent difference of opinion between the Colonies and mother country, on matters of government, which eventually separated them.

1754.

The events of the American Revolution need not be recounted here, since they are related at length in American histories.

The long reign of George III witnessed the disruption of the British dominions through the loss of the thirteen American Colonies, as States of the American Republic, which now constitutes the larger part of the English-speaking world.

His two immediate predecessors had been Germans in speech and thought, as well as natives of Hanover, where the most of their time was spent. George III was a native of Great Britain, and made that country his home. Unlike the preceding Georges, who left everything to the ministry, and cared little for governing, George III was ambitious to rule as well as to reign, and developed much of the spirit which wrecked the Stuart dynasty. The influence he should have exerted in favor of much-needed reforms was wielded for the promotion of his own ambition. A picture of the spirit of his time is presented in the "Letters of Junius," in which political invective finds its masterpiece. George III died in 1820, having been nine years practically deprived of his crown through a regency, for he became blind and insane. Two of his sons, in turn, succeeded him. These were, first George IV, who had been regent, and who now reigned for ten years, and second, William IV. Since both of these kings died childless, the crown descended in 1837 to their niece Victoria, the last British ruler of the house of Hanover.

QUESTIONS.—Who was the last of the Stuart sovereigns, and what house succeeded to the British throne? What was the purpose of the Act of Settlement in excluding the remaining members of the Stuart family? Who were the Jacobites? What was the policy of George I in respect to political parties in Great Britain? What was the "South Sea Bubble"? What led to the abandonment of the Pretender's plan for a return to Great Britain in this reign? Who succeeded George I? Describe the Jacobite insurrection of this reign. What is the author's estimate of Walpole?—of Pitt? What is said of ancient India? How did the British acquire a foothold in that country? Describe the career of Clive. What was the "Black Hole" of Calcutta? Who succeeded to the British throne in 1760? Relate the career of Warren Hastings. What were the events leading to the American Revolution? What was the ambition of George III? What was the length of his reign? What other sovereigns of the house of Hanover followed?

XI. The French Revolution.

1. All the nations that had been engaged in the "Seven Years' War" found themselves, at its termination, suffering under the

1643-1715. burden of grievous taxes. France had suffered the most severely, and was at the close of the contest in a state of the most lamentable depression. The evils

1715-1774. of the long continued wars in which that nation had been engaged during the reigns of Louis XIV and Louis XV had been developed, and the finances of the kingdom were in a state of irretrievable disorder. The marriage of Louis the Dauphin to the archduchess of Austria, Marie Antoinette, was celebrated with great pomp, and for a time withdrew the minds of the peasantry from the sense of their sufferings. But they had been ground down to abject poverty by oppressive taxation, and were subjected to arbitrary imprisonment.

2. The Parliament of Paris had acquired power, and now exhibited a determined opposition to the court. The middle class

1774. had become enlightened, and many of them had imbibed from Voltaire, Rousseau, and others, opinions hostile to religion and to morality. The American Revolution had been favorably regarded, and Franklin had been received and honored at the court of Louis. The principles of national liberty which the American patriots advocated were embraced even by some among the nobility. La Fayette and others left their country to aid the Americans in the struggle. France at length, though she could ill afford it, gave the national support to America, and thus became involved in a war with Great Britain. Louis XVI made fruitless attempts to improve the finances and to ameliorate the condition of his people. The national debt amounted to the enormous sum of 6,000,000,000 of livres! The minister, Calonne', in order to relieve the government of its embarrassments, proposed to levy a tax upon the privileged orders. The nation, knowing the liberty of America and Great Britain, and chafing at its own degradation, demanded loudly that the national legislature, the States General, should again be called to meet. This the court feared to order; and the minister convened the Notables, an assembly selected from the higher classes. This assembly saw not that it stood upon a volcano ready to explode; and its members refused to be taxed. Famine came upon the miserable population, and there was a ferocity in their murmurs which terrified the court. The king, by the advice of Neck'er, then in the ministry, convoked the States General.

3. The deputies met at Versailles' on the 5th of May, 1789.

The Commons, or Third Estate, who in former times had been governed by the two other orders, the Clergy and the Noblesse, now manifested an independent spirit; and even when the king came to address them they covered their heads in ominous disrespect. The Three Estates had formerly sat in different chambers. Now the Commons, on meeting, refused to proceed to business until joined by the other Orders. Against the threats of the king and the opposition of the aristocracy, the Commons, at the head of whom was Mirabeau, carried the point of consolidating the Assembly in one chamber. The deputies gave themselves the title of the "National Assembly."

4. Louis had dismissed Necker, and a new minister ordered a corps of foreign troops to advance towards Versailles and Paris, these places having declared for the Assembly, which was now engaged in making for France a free constitution. Jealous for the rights of its legislature, all Paris flew to arms. The "National Guard" was formed. It assembled with crowds of citizens at the Bastile; and that gloomy prison, where so many innocent victims of royal caprice and tyranny had been immured, was leveled with the ground. Two days after this event La Fayette was made commander of the National Guard. The Assembly demanded the dismissal of the foreign troops. The minister retained them. When Louis was informed of the cause of the excitement, all of which had been concealed from him, he visited the Assembly, threw himself upon its protection, and ordered the retreat of the troops. He next visited Paris, where he was received with demonstrations of attachment, which he strengthened by confirming the appointments made by the Assembly.

1789.

5. On the morning of the fifth of October a multitude of women in Paris rose, and set up the cry of "Bread! bread!" demanding to be led to Versailles. The rising became general, and arms were seized. La Fayette, unable to stop the mob, accompanied it to Versailles, at the head of the National Guard. The women went first. The crowd surrounded the palace. The king appeared, and gratified the rabble by promising to go to Paris. During the last hours of the night some of the more violent of the mob found an unguarded entrance into the queen's apartment, and would have murdered her had she not escaped to another room. The royal family removed to Paris, the National Assembly followed; and its presence, with the exertions of La Fayette, for a time

calmed the tumults of the populace, and restored quiet to the city.

6. In the National Assembly were men of noble motives and disinterested conduct; but while they proceeded with the work of uprooting ancient usages, they sometimes destroyed too unsparingly, and the good suffered with the bad. The remains of the old feudal system were cleared away. The lands belonging to the religious houses were converted to the use of the nation; and the estates of those who had fled from France on the repeal of the Edict of Nantes were ordered to be restored. With the vast landed property of the church which fell under the control of the Assembly, and with the confiscated domains of the emigrant nobility, was constituted a fund for the national use; and on this basis the Assembly issued their paper securities, which passed current and received the name of *assignats*. But while the Assembly was laboring to complete the constitution, the king assenting to their acts, various countermovements were in operation.

1790.

Marie Antoinette neither loved nor trusted the French people. She was censured by the nation for her extravagance and levity, and was charged with crimes which she had not committed. The nobility in many cases had emigrated, and had stirred up foreign princes against the reformers. The court saw that the tide had become too strong for it to cope with. Its members, desirous to escape, were in correspondence with the emperor of Austria, and expected an armed force to come to their assistance. Clubs were formed, among which was that of the Jacobins, who stirred up the people to censure the measures of the new government, as being too moderate and too lenient to the principles of monarchy.

7. Meantime the crowned heads of Europe, alarmed at prevalence of principles which tended to disorganize their own States, now threatened to interfere for the purpose of restoring the authority of Louis. On the north an Austrian army, commanded by the Duke of Brunswick, was approaching France. It was soon known that its object was to afford protection to the royal family, who now escaped at night from Paris. Incensed at the king's distrust of the people and at his intention to join their enemies, the mob pursued, arrested the royal fugitives at Varennes, and carried them back to the capital. Paris became a scene of tumult and uproar, and the whole kingdom was convulsed. In the Assembly, violent discussions arose. Some maintained that Louis, by his flight, abdicated the throne, and the more violent demanded his execution.

The new constitution being completed on September 29th, 1791, the Constituent Assembly declared its business accomplished; and it not only dissolved, but decreed, with more magnanimity than wisdom, that no member of its own body should be eligible to a reëlection.

8. Deputies being chosen, the "Legislative Assembly," composed of ignorant and violent men, convened on October 14th. Roland was now minister of the Interior, and Dumourier for Foreign Affairs. Francis II of Austria, the emperor, imperatively demanded the restoration of the old order of things, and was preparing to enforce his demand by the sword. On the 20th of March the Assembly declared war against him.

9. Prussia joined Austria; and the combined armies, amounting to 115,000 men, advanced and entered the French territory. The Duke of Brunswick published a manifesto, threatening the Assembly with the loss of their heads, and all Paris with destruction, if the slightest insult should be offered to the royal family. In Paris all was uproar and agitation. The tocsin was sounded, the drums beat, and armed men assembled. Early in 1792. the morning they besieged the palace. Louis, with his family, passed to enter the House of Deputies and to claim the protection of the Assembly. After the king left the palace, the rioters massacred the Swiss guards. They then surrounded the Assembly, which, yielding to their demands, passed a vote to dethrone the king. The Luxembourg was first assigned him as his residence; thence he was tranferred, a prisoner, to a building called "The Temple."

10. After these events La Fayette, ever true to constitutional liberty, seeing that it could no longer be maintained, attempted with four of his friends to escape to America; but they were made prisoners by the Austrians and, contrary to the laws of nations, were immured for years in the dreary dungeons of Olmutz. France was now divided into violent parties. In the Legislative Assembly were the Constitutionalists; the Girondists, who were not ill disposed towards the king; and the Jacobin or Mountain party, so called from their occupying the highest and central seats in the Chamber. The Jacobins were bloodthirsty agitators, and they held in Paris their clubs, which were presided over by Danton, Robespierre, and Marat, afterwards called "the Infernal Triumvirate."

11. The combined army made themselves masters of Longwy and Verdun. The commune of Paris, when informed of this, gave orders for a general massacre of the Royalists. About three hun-
1792. dred murderers were employed in the horrid service, and three days were devoted to the inhuman butchery. The Assembly and the Ministry attempted in vain to arrest the massacre. The soldiers who guarded the prisons were unable to afford the unhappy inmates relief. The Legislative Assembly closed its career, and was succeeded by an Assembly still more violent, called the "National Convention." The regal power was declared to be abolished, and a republic was established. Violent contests occurred in the Assembly between the factions of the Gironde and the Mountain. The former reprobated the massacre, and wished to save the king. The latter gloried in their deeds of blood, and determined to destroy not only the king, but all persons who were opposed to their own violent measures. The Jacobins
1793. prevailed. Louis was tried and condemned; and on the 25th of January he was brought to the guillotine, an innocent victim of the crimes of his predecessors.

12. The execution of the king rendered parties irreconcilable, and called down upon the nation the vengeance of monarchical Europe. Great Britain put forth its energies, and by means of money and influence formed against France *the First Coalition,* in
1793. which all the European powers united except Sweden, Denmark, and Turkey. Before the trial of Louis, Dumourier had been placed at the head of the French armies, and sent against the Prussians. At Valmy he obtained some advantage, and the Prussians retreated. The French next recovered Verdun and Longwy, and finally achieved the conquest of Belgium. Dumourier now invaded Holland, and took Breda and Gertruydenberg, but was recalled to the command in Belgium, where the Austrians in their turn had been successful. He hazarded an engagement at Neerwinden, and was defeated.

13. Meanwhile an insurrection had taken place in La Vendee, which held out for the king; and the most heart-sickening scenes of destruction and carnage, want, and destitution there occurred. This and other events increased the rigor of the Convention, and the hatred of the parties. The Girondists were overthrown. The Mountain faction obtained supreme authority, and the "Reign of Terror" began. The once gay, and still beautiful queen, after hav-

ing suffered for the necessaries of life in the gloomy prison of the Conciergerie, was condemned and executed. The leaders of the Girondists were also put to death; and Danton, Robespierre, and Marat, in the name of the republic, committed with arbitrary despotism the most barbarous cruelties. Licentiousness and profligacy walked forth unveiled. Even the forms of religion were destroyed, and Christianity was declared a nullity. The Sabbath was abolished, and one day in ten was set apart, not for religion, but for idleness and licentiousness. The goddess of reason, personified by a nude wanton, was drawn in triumph through the streets of Paris; and the municipal officers of the city and the members of the National Convention of France joined publicly in the parade.

14. Of the three despots, Marat was assassinated by Charlotte Corday, a young girl, self-devoted to the good of her country. Danton was condemned through the instrumentality of Robespierre. This atrocious man for a time maintained the sway alone. But at last, deserted by his associates, he was condemned by the Convention; and the guillotine, which during the reign of nearly two years had shed the innocent blood of thousands, for once let fall the stroke of justice, and delivered the earth of a ferocious monster.

15. Meanwhile the republican armies under Jourdan and Pichegru had retrieved the honor of the French, and in the Netherlands and elsewhere had achieved many conquests. After the fall of Robespierre and his associates, the revolutionists began to see that if blood continued to flow their own must soon swell the tide. The Constitution was remodeled, so as to become less democratic; and the executive government was intrusted to a Directory, consisting of five persons. The legislative body was formed of two councils; that of the "Ancients," of two hundred and fifty members, and the "Council of Five Hundred." All laws were to originate with the Five Hundred, but none was to pass without the sanction of the Ancients. Some of the provisions of the new Constitution offended the Parisians and the National Guards, 30,000 of whom rose in arms. Barras, one of the Directors, brought forward and placed at the head of the regular troops

1795. a young Corsican officer, who promptly reduced them to order. He had distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon. He was Napoleon Bonaparte.

16. Austria and England were now the only powers of the first order engaged in the war against France, the others having withdrawn from the coalition. Bonaparte was raised to the rank of general; and the Directors, who meditated the conquest of Austria, intrusted him with the command of the army of Italy. Moreau and Jourdan crossed the Rhine. The Austrian generals were unable to withstand them, and all Germany was filled with consternation. The imperial forces at length united; and under the Archduke Charles they attacked Jourdan and defeated him.

1795-1796.

17. Bonaparte, meanwhile, advanced into Italy, passing around the southern extremity of the Alps, and keeping near the shores of the Mediterranean. In less than a month he had gained three battles, destroyed 25,000 of the enemy's forces, and made himself master of the mountain passes. Pressing forward, he crossed the Po; and attacking with desperate bravery the Austrians at the bridge of Lodi, he forced their general, Beaulieu, to retreat upon Mantua. Milan submitted to his arms, and those powers of Italy heretofore neutral or interested in the Austrian cause now sought the friendship of the conqueror. The Dukes of Parma and Modena, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and even the pope, were compelled to purchase his favor, not only with money and provisions, but with their finest paintings and statuary, which were transported to Paris.

18. Mantua was now the only place of strength which remained to the Austrians in Italy, and to this Bonaparte laid siege. To defend it, 80,000 Austrians were dispatched into Italy, under the command of Wurmser. Victory again declared for the French. Three defeats destroyed nearly half the Austrian army. Bonaparte now resumed the siege of Mantua. He obtained a decided victory over the main body, under Wurmser, at Bassano. This general, as a last effort, succeeded in throwing himself into Mantua with a remnant of the Austrian army, now reduced to 16,000 men. At Arcola, where he fought three days, Bonaparte was again victorious. Thus closed the wonderful campaign of 1796, which the minister of war reported thus to the Directory: "Italy has been entirely conquered, and three large armies have been entirely destroyed. Fifty stands of colors have been taken, and forty thousand Austrians have laid down their arms. All has been accomplished by an army of thirty thousand Frenchmen,

commanded by a general scarce twenty-six years old." About this time Corsica, the native land of Bonaparte, was by his agency reunited to France. The destructive civil war of La Vendee was ably and honorably brought to a close by General Hoche, at the head of 100,000 men.

19. In a desperate battle at Riv'oli, Bonaparte was again victorious; then Mantua surrendered, and Italy was conquered. Bonaparte now advanced towards Austria. Vienna was in alarm, and the humbled court now consented to negotiations, which were opened at Idemberg on the 9th of April. While awaiting for authority from the Directory to complete the treaty, the young conqueror sat down at Montebello, in the vicinity of Milan, where ambassadors from Germany, the papacy, Genoa, Venice, Piedmont, and the Swiss republic, gathered around him, each seeking his favor. On the 17th of October the treaty was concluded at Campo Formio. To France were ceded Flanders, Savoy, and the extension of its boundary to the Rhine.

20. Austria was to be indemnified by receiving a part of the territories of Venice. An insurrection in that city, with the murder of some of the French soldiery, during the absence of Bonaparte, offered him a pretext to conquer the Venetian republic. The Austrians took possession of some of its provinces, and the French of the remainder, with the capital. Naples was formed into a Parthenopean republic. The Cisalpine republic was formed of the French portion of the duchy of Milan, and several other Italian States. The constitution of Genoa was also changed, and it received the name of the Ligurian republic. About the same time Holland was conquered by Pichegru, and the Batavian republic there established. An insurrection took place in Rome; the French troops occupied the city, subverted the papal government, and established the Roman republic. French influence also produced a revolution in Switzerland, where the French arms, after several battles, triumphed, and the Helvetian republic was established. Geneva was united to France.

1798.

21. In the meantime the English, now left single handed to contend with France, had maintained their superiority at sea, and in successive engagements defeated the French and their allies. The Directory of France, victorious on the Continent, but disturbed by factions and disorders at home—perhaps unwilling to

retain in Paris a general who possessed ambition and unlimited power over the troops—now planned a new and singular enterprise, the conquest of Egypt. The preparations were made under pretense of an expedition against England, and the command was given to Bonaparte. He embarked at Toulon. On his passage he achieved the conquest of Malta; and though pursued by the British fleet, he arrived in safety at Alexandria. He ascended the Nile; and near Cairo, in sight of those monuments of antiquity, he gained the sanguinary battle of the Pyramids, over the Mamelukes under Murad Bey, whose cavalry had been regarded as invincible. Cairo surrendered, Egypt was conquered, and the remnant of the Mamelukes dispersed and fled.

22. Admiral Nelson, the hero of the British navy, commanded a fleet which followed the French to the Bay of Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, where their vessels were moored. 1798. In a bloody battle he entirely defeated them and nearly destroyed their ships, thus rendering the English masters of the Mediterranean and placing the French army in a perilous situation. Learning that the Turks had assembled two armies for the defense of Egypt, Bonaparte traversed the desert which separates Africa from Asia; and entering Palestine, he defeated another body of Mamelukes, and took Gaza and Jaffa. Bent upon the conquest of Syria, he invested Acre; but receiving a repulse from the English under Sir Sidney Smith, he was compelled to raise the siege. Then he retired into Egypt. A Turkish army having landed at Aboukir, Napoleon advanced against it and obtained another decisive victory. Intelligence from Europe now induced him to abandon Egypt; and leaving his army under Kleber, he returned to France with secrecy and despatch.

23. While Bonaparte was engaged in Egypt, a reverse of fortune had taken place in the French affairs. A *"Second Coalition,"* composed of Great Britain, Russia, Naples, 1798. the Ottoman Porte, and Austria, had been formed against France. The Austrian war had been renewed. The Archduke Charles, having won two battles over Jourdan, had penetrated Switzerland. The Russians and Austrians, under Suwarrow, had defeated the French at Gassano, and made themselves masters of Milan and Turin. In short, repeated defeats had deprived the French of nearly all their conquests in Italy. In other quarters the arms of France were more successful. Under Massena they

defeated a Russian army in Switzerland, and took Zurich. A combined English and Russian army under the Duke of York, which had invaded Holland, was compelled to retreat, after achieving some partial successes.

24. France was torn by factions, which the Directorial government could not manage. Bonaparte, with the Abbe Sieyes, planned another revolution, in which he took care to be appointed to the command of the military in Paris. The legislative body he expelled from their place of session, at the point of the bayonet. Three consuls were appointed, of whom Bonaparte was first. Placed now at the head of the French nation, he made earnest overtures of peace with Great Britain, but they were haughtily rejected. Russia, however, abandoned the coalition.

25. Moreau had now the command in upper Germany, and Bonaparte invaded Italy with 30,000 men. He crossed Mount St. Bernard, through passes heretofore deemed inaccessible, surprised the Austrians, conquered the country to the Po, and restored the Cisalpine republic. Melas, the Austrian general, had left what he deemed a sufficient force to guard the passes of the Alps, and with the main army advanced upon Genoa. Leaving there a besieging force, he marched towards France, encountered the French under Suchet, and compelled them to retreat. On the eve of invading France, he received the astounding intelligence of Bonaparte's passage over Mount St. Bernard. Melas turned back, and on the plains of Marengo the hostile armies met. The shock was terrific, but the fierce and bloody encounter left the French masters of the field. This battle restored to France almost all that had been lost in the preceding campaign; and it was followed by an armistice which extended to the armies on the Rhine. Moreau had crossed the Rhine, penetrated Bavaria, and gained the battle of Hohenlinden, where he took 10,000 prisoners, and entered Austria. Negotiations for peace were now opened at Luneville. The several republics founded by the French were acknowledged, and the Rhine was made the boundary between France and the empire. At Florence a treaty of peace was made with Naples. The naval war had meanwhile been to the advantage of the English, to whom Malta had surrendered.

1801.

26. In the north of Europe, affairs wore a new aspect. Paul, now emperor of Russia, was won over by the policy of Bonaparte,

and evinced a hostile spirit towards the English. He laid an embargo on their shipping. He also engaged Denmark and Sweden in an "armed neutrality," the object of which was to injure Great Britain. The British despatched ships to the Baltic, took possession of the Danish fleet, and attacked Copenhagen, thus obliging the Danes to sue for peace. The death of Paul of Russia produced another change. His son Alexander, by mediating between England and France, effected a peace between them. It was favorable to France, Great Britain restoring all conquests except Trinidad and Ceylon. Peace was concluded between France and the Porte. The English and Turkish army had defeated the French forces in Egypt, and restored that country to the Turks. Bonaparte was now consolidating his power by seeking the favor of every class. He reëstablished the Roman catholic religion, revived the priesthood, reorganized the National Institute, and permitted the emigrants to return. He pleased the officers of the army, already devotedly attached to his person, by creating the "Legion of Honor," a military aristocracy of which he himself was chief. He was declared by the Senate first consul for life.

1801-1825.

1802.

27. In the French island of St. Domingo the Negroes had risen upon their masters, and massacres succeeded. The English invaded the island. The French colonists and Negroes made peace, and together expelled the common enemy. Although still tributary to France, they adopted a new government; and Toussaint L'Ouverture, who though a Negro, possessed distinguished talents and virtues, now held the first station on the island. The French attacked the islanders. Toussaint was treacherously made prisoner and taken to Paris, where Bonaparte disgracefully permitted the sable patriot to suffer and die in prison. The islanders resisted the French successfully, and maintained their liberty.

28. A year had not elapsed since the peace of Amiens before the refusal of England to fulfil the treaty produced a renewal of the war between France and that power. The French seized the electorate of Hanover, and a British squadron blockaded the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser. It was at this time that Bonaparte stained his name by the murder of the Duke D'Enghien, who was accused of favoring those who conspired against the life

of the first consul. D'Enghien was arrested and, after the form of a military trial, was condemned and shot in the trench of the castle of Vincennes. The obsequious Senate now offered to Bonaparte the title of emperor; and he prepared for the coronation of himself and his consort. The charitable and elegant Josephine, a creole native of the isle of Martinique in the West Indies, was the widow of a young French nobleman when she became the wife of Napoleon. A favorite at the court of the late queen, she was well fitted to preside over the splendid court circles of the new empire.

QUESTIONS.—What is said of the effect of the Seven Years' War? What marriage is here mentioned, and what is said of its celebration? What was the state of the peasantry of France? From what quarter was the court opposed? What was the state of the middle class? What was done in reference to the American Revolution? To what sum did the national debt of France amount? What was proposed in reference to it? What were the feeling and voice of the nation? By what measure did the minister seek to avert this, and what was its result? When and where did the Assembly meet? What was the bearing of the Third Estate? What point did they make, and how did they succeed in carrying it? Who was the leader, or head of the Commons? What was the Assembly engaged in doing? What military corps was formed? By whom did the people fear that the Assembly would be overawed, and what did they do? On what day was the Bastile destroyed, and what occurred two days afterwards? What further occurred in regard to foreign troops? Relate the disturbances of the 5th of October? What was the occurrence of the night?—the conduct of La Fayette? What removal was made by the royal family? What is here remarked of the National Assembly, and of their acts? How did they provide the fund for carrying their objects into effect? What movements counter to the National Assembly emanated from the court? What from the nobility? What danger threatened the revolutionists from the surrounding kings? What armed force was on the north? For what purpose did it approach the confines of France, and what was done by the royal family? What was the result of its attempt to escape? What was done by the National Constituent Assembly? What Assembly next convened? Who were now the king's ministers? What army was advancing on Paris? What declaration was published by the Duke of Brunswick? What was now the situation of the royal family? What was the course pursued by La Fayette, when a peaceful revolution changed to violence and outrage? Give an account of the principal parties in France. When informed that danger was threatening Paris, by the approach and success of the invading army, what horrid massacre was perpetrated? What contention arose among the factions? Which prevailed, and what was done? What immediate consequences resulted from the execution of the king?

Relate some of the military operations in the north. What is said of the war in La Vendee? What party or faction now gained the ascendancy? Who was now sacrificed? Who were the "Infernal Triumvirate"? What impious declaration was made? What infamous rites were celebrated, and who joined in them publicly? What was the fate of Marat?—of Danton?—of Robespierre? Under what generals were the French armies? Were they successful? How was the government now remodeled? Did this third Constitution pass without tumult? What occurred? What first-rate powers were engaged in war against France in 1795-6? What conquest did the Directory now meditate? Describe the course of General Bonaparte until after his first and second victories? What important city submitted to him? What was the result of this brilliant success? Which of the sovereigns of these States made their submission, and with what were they compelled to purchase the favor of the conqueror? What strong fortress held out for Austria? What was done in reference to it? By what army did the Austrians attempt to defend it? What did the French minister report to the Directory concerning this astonishing campaign? What is said of Corsica? What of the disastrous war of La Vendee? What course did the French commander take after the conquest of Italy? When and where did negotiations begin? Where was now the young conqueror, and how surrounded? Give some account of the peace of Campo Formio. Relate the iniquitous proceedings with respect to Venice. Enumerate the burlesque republics which the French now formed of their conquered provinces. What city was united to France? What had been the fortune of war on the seas? What new project was formed by the Directory? Give an account of Bonaparte's expedition against Egypt. What important naval battle was fought, and what were the results? Relate the circumstances of Bonaparte's invasion of Syria. What battle did Bonaparte gain after his return to Egypt? What nations were parties to the second coalition against France? What had been done by the Austrian armies in Italy? How had the French succeeded in other quarters? What did Bonaparte find to do when he returned from Egypt? Who aided him in changing the government? How was the new revolution effected? What were the three first magistrates called, and who was the first of the three? What did the first consul do in regard to England? What nation abandoned the Coalition? Relate Bonaparte's second invasion of Italy?—the movements of Melas—the battle of Marengo. What armistice was made? What, in the meantime, had been done by Moreau? What treaties of peace were now made? What is said of the naval war? Who was Paul, and what was done by him? How did his hostility to England affect Denmark? Who was Paul's successor, and what is the first act related of him? Give an account of the treaty of Amiens. In what was Bonaparte now occupied, and what measures did he bring to effect? What had been done in St. Domingo? What oppressive act is related of Bonaparte? What caused the renewal of war between France and England? What possession of the English was seized by the French? What measure of retaliation did the British take by means of their navy? What was done by Bonaparte in relation to the Duke of D'Enghien?

XII. The Empire of Napoleon.

1. Napoleon was vested with the imperial dignity on the 2nd of December, 1804. The pope, reconciled by the establishment of the Catholic religion, assisted at the splendid ceremonial, and anointed him in the church of Notre Dame. Those States which had been called republics were now to be remodeled, and the Cisalpine and Ligurian were formed into the kingdom of Italy, of which Napoleon was crowned king of Milan. Thus a second Charlemagne had arisen, to restore for a brief season the empire of the West.

1804.

2. Great Britain, with the influence which it wielded, and with money to subsidize Russia and Austria, now formed with them a *Third Coalition*. Spain had already allied itself to France. Napoleon, rapid as a mountain torrent, crossed the Rhine, took prisoners an Austrian army at Ulm, and while Francis and his court fled to Hungary, entered the capital. At Austerlitz, on the anniversary of his coronation, he met the united Austrian and Russian armies. From sunrise until evening the battle was waged, and then the genius of Napoleon again prevailed. The allies were compelled to retreat, leaving to the French 30,000 prisoners and an immense quantity of artillery. The successes of Ulm and Austerlitz were followed by the treaty of Presburg, Austria now deserting the coalition.

1805.

3. In 1806 the ambitious aims of Napoleon became still more apparent. Holland, in the preceding year, had been formed into a kingdom, of which his brother Louis Bonaparte was made king. Naples was now given to Joseph Bonaparte, the elder brother, who was also invested with the title of king of the Two Sicilies. Several provinces were constituted duchies, or grand fiefs of the empire, and were given to the emperor's relations and favorites. His sister Pauline was made duchess of Guastalla, and his brother-in-law Murat grand duke of Berg and Cleves; while Eugene Beauharnais, the son of the empress Josephine by a former marriage, was sent as viceroy to Italy. Fourteen princes in the south and west of Germany were formed into the "Confederation of the Rhine." They were separated from the Germanic body, and recognized Napoleon as their head, under the title of Protector. *The Holy Roman (German) Empire now ceased to exist;* Francis II laid down the title of head of the old

1806.

empire, and assumed that of emperor of Austria.[1] Switzerland was also brought under the dominion of France, Napoleon declaring himself its "Mediator."

4. Frederic William of Prussia, who had heretofore been neutral, now engaged in the war against France. The main origin of his enmity was the duplicity of Napoleon, who had encouraged the Prussians to seize the electorate of Hanover, and who since, in negotiating with Great Britain, had offered to restore it. The Prussian army, with their allies, amounted to 110,000 men. Napoleon met them at Jena, with 150,000, and obtained a complete victory. The different bodies of the Prussian army, one after another, were obliged to surrender; and in little more than a month the French took 140,000 prisoners, great numbers of standards, and large quantities of artillery, and made themselves masters of the principal towns of the kingdom. From Berlin, Napoleon issued his famous decree, declaring the islands of Great Britain in a state of blockade, and prohibiting the countries under his government from all intercourse with that nation. He next detached Saxony from Prussia, conferred upon the elector the dignity of king, and brought him into the alliance. The Prussian provinces on the lower Rhine were invaded by an army from Holland, under Louis, and Silesia, by a French army under Jerome Bonaparte, a younger brother of Napoleon.

1806.

5. Russia became now seriously alarmed, and her armies advanced to protect her empire. At Pultusk a battle was fought between the French and Russians, without any decisive result. Again at Eylau, from three o'clock in the afternoon until the next night, the two armies fought. At about twelve o'clock the carnage ceased, the French keeping possession of the field. The armies now, for some time, remained inactive. In May the French besieged and took Dantzic. In June following, a decisive battle was fought at Friedland, where the Russians were defeated and compelled to retreat with great loss. This battle was followed by the capture of Königsberg, and by a personal interview between Alexander and Napoleon, who met on a raft in the middle of the river Nieman—for neither of these potentates would go to

1807.

[1] Upper Austria and Lower Austria were two duchies which he possessed by hereditary right. He had been elected emperor. Now that the empire was finally dissolved, after an existence of a thousand years, Francis possessed only his hereditary estates. The Austrias constituted a rather pitiful "empire," but he possessed a number of other estates of a heterogeneous character which were included with them.

visit the other. The peace of Tilsit was concluded. Napoleon made hard conditions with Prussia, stripping Frederic William of one-third of his dominions. The brothers of Napoleon were recognized in their dignities; and another of the family, Jerome Bonaparte, was provided with a kingdom in Westphalia.

6. Denmark having manifested signs of hostility towards the British government, the latter feared that Napoleon would possess himself of the Danish navy, and it demanded of the Danes to deposit their ships of the line in some British port. The haughty demand was refused. A British fleet was dispatched to the Baltic, conveying land forces, which defeated a Danish army and invested Copenhagen. The city capitulated, and the shipping and naval stores were delivered up to the British. The Danish government refused to ratify the capitulation, and declared war against Great Britain.

1807.

7. Napoleon now turned his ambitious eyes towards the south, coveting the peninsula of Spain and Portugal. He made a secret treaty with Charles IV of Spain, by which he was to send French troops through the Spanish dominions, take Portugal, and then divide it with Spain. The French army, headed by Junot, advanced towards Lisbon; and Napoleon declared that the family of Braganza had ceased to reign. Under these circumstances the prince regent, John VI, and royal family, resolved to remove the seat of government to Brazil; and they hastily embarked in a British fleet, which had blockaded the city, and which now afforded them protection from the French, who soon afterwards entered Lisbon.

8. The court of Madrid was agitated by the most violent factions, arising from the discords of the royal family. No doubt they were fomented by the emissaries of Napoleon. In March, 1808, Charles IV abdicated the crown of Spain in favor of his son Ferdinand VIII. Murat, with a French army, took possession of Madrid. Under these circumstances Charles and Ferdinand, with the royal family, were induced by Napoleon to go to Bayonne, where he compelled Ferdinand to abdicate and the younger members of the family to renounce all claim upon the Spanish crown. He retained them as prisoners, and issued orders for an Assembly of Notables to meet at Bayonne, to settle the government. No Spaniards except the partisans of France attended. Joseph Bonaparte, who resigned the kingdom of Naples to Murat, the

husband of Caroline Bonaparte, was here made king of Spain. Napoleon's base treachery towards Spain was perhaps his first fatal error.

9. During this year a new system of French jurisprudence was published, under the title of *the "Code Napoleon."* The ablest jurists in France had been employed by the emperor in its formation. He gave much personal attention, thought, and labor to it, and *it now remains as his best title to future fame.* Soon after the publication of this code, Napoleon established *a university for the superintendence of national education.* Nor did he entirely overlook the education of the female sex, though he was far from regarding the subject in its true light. The institution which he founded, and placed under the celebrated Madam Campan, was designed rather as a means for encouraging the army than for elevating the female mind and character, it being designed for the daughters of the "Legion of Honor," especially for those whose fathers fell in his service.

10. Spain, though believed to be degenerate, had yet her patriots, who would not tamely relinquish her national independence. They roused themselves to arms, although not less than 100,000 French troops were dispersed throughout the kingdom. The Spaniards were indeed enervated by that luxury which the gold and silver of the West had brought in its train, but this was not so true of the peasantry as of the nobles. Provincial Assemblies were formed, acknowledging the authority of Ferdinand VII; and orders were issued for raising volunteers, and for organizing armies. The French fleet in the harbor of Cadiz was compelled by the patriotic citizens to surrender; and a French army near Almanza was almost wholly destroyed. At Valencia, too, the French learned that the Spanish people, though destitute of regular troops, would defend their soil. At Saragossa the French were again repulsed with the loss of 12,000 men. In Andalusia the French general Dupont was defeated and compelled to surrender his army. These victories placed the southern parts of the kingdom entirely in the hands of the patriots. King Joseph meanwhile arrived at Madrid and assumed the reigns of government; but learning of the successes of the Spaniards, he retreated from the capital.

11. George III of Great Britain became insane; and his son, afterwards George IV, was made regent. He formed an alliance

with the Spanish patriots, and with those of Portugal, who, following the Spanish example, now rose in arms against the French. The British despatched an army under Sir Arthur Wellesley, which
1808. landed in Portugal on October 12th, 1808. He obtained at Vimeira a victory over the French under Junot, and compelled them to evacuate Portugal. Another British army landed in Spain under the command of Sir John Moore.

12. Napoleon now took upon himself the command of the Spanish war. He defeated several patriot armies, and advanced
1809. upon Madrid, which surrendered after a weak defense. Sir John Moore, who had proceeded to Salamanca, retreated, closely followed by the French. They overtook him at Corunna, and attacked him as he was about embarking his army. The English gained their ships, but not without loss. Sir John was killed, and his officers, before their departure, snatched a few dangerous and sorrowful moments to bury him on the shore.

13. Russia and Denmark, now in the interest of France, made war upon Sweden, which favored Great Britain. The Swedes were defeated, and Finland was added to the Russian empire. Gustavus IV was deposed by the Swedes, on pretense of his incapacity for governing, and the duke of Sudermania was elected king, under the title of Charles XIII. British vessels were now excluded from the Swedish ports.

14. While Napoleon was busy settling his brother Joseph's kingdom in Spain, where *he abolished the inquisition,* Austria was
1809. raising and disciplining great armies. The Tyrolese rebelled, the Westphalians expelled their king Jerome Bonaparte, and Prussia and Italy were ready to avail themselves of the first adverse circumstances to burst the chains by which the despot of Europe had bound them. Napoleon returned to France, then led his armies across the Rhine; and after successfully fighting the Austrian archduke Charles at Abensberg, and at Landshut, he obtained the brilliant victory of Eckmuhl, which opened his way to Vienna. Francis fled, and the French, after entering his capital, proceeded down the south bank of the Danube, the archduke having collected his scattered army and taken a position on the north bank, towards Presburg. At Aspern and Essling the French attempted to cross the river, but were driven back with great slaughter and compelled to recross to Lobau, an island in the river, from which Napoleon had erected bridges for conveying

his army to the opposite bank. After remaining for several weeks on this island, Napoleon deceived the Austrians with regard to his contemplated point of attack, and caused a bridge to be thrown over the river opposite to a wing of the Austrian army which was stationed at Wagram. One night sufficed for its completion, and on the following morning the surprised Austrians beheld the French army ready to attack them. The battle began at sunrise, and at night the French had conquered.

15. The treaty of Vienna, which was signed by Francis and Napoleon, was less unfavorable to Austria than might have been expected from her almost ruined condition. The cause was not long a secret. The fair Maria Louisa, eldest daughter of the emperor of Austria, was cast into the balance, to be given in marriage to Napoleon. Accordingly, after his return to France, he divorced Josephine, severing her from his side and breaking the heart of the best of his friends, while he took in her place the daughter of his ancient enemy.

1809.

16. The British invaded Holland with a fleet bearing an army of 40,000 men under the Earl of Chatham, and made themselves masters of Flushing. A French army was sent against them, under Bernadotte. The British took possession of the island of Walcheren, with a view of blocking up the Scheldt; and being kept by their leaders in that unwholesome spot, many fell victims to the pestilential atmosphere of the marshes which surrounded them. The remainder returned; and the enterprise, to the grief and mortification of the British, entirely failed of its object.

1809.

17. The Peninsular war had been prosecuted by the generals of Napoleon, while he was occupied with the Austrians. Saragossa, after a vigorous and determined resistance, in which 20,000 of its defenders perished, fell before the French under Soult, whose army then entered Portugal, but was forced by Wellesley to retreat. Efforts more united were now made by the English and Portuguese. Their armies entered Spain, and at Talavera they achieved a victory over the French commanded by King Joseph in person. A reinforcement from France under Ney arriving, Wellesley was compelled to retreat into Portugal. At Ocana the French under Joseph obtained a complete victory over the Spaniards; and at the termination of his campaign the cause of the unfortunate patriots seemed desperate.

18. The ensuing winter the French made themselves masters of Malaga, and completed a line of posts from the bay to the Mediterranean, intersecting the whole of Spain, through its capital.

1810. They took Seville, and commenced the siege of Cadiz. The strong fortress of Ciudad Roderigo was carried by the French; Portugal was invaded, and Almeida was taken. Wellesley now adopted the Fabian policy, and harassed his enemy, avoiding general actions. At the pass of Busaco, the French under Massena attacked him, but were repulsed with considerable loss. He retreated within about thirty miles of Lisbon, and Massena made Santarem his headquarters. In this year the Cortes of Spain assembled, declared the renunciation of Bayonne to be null and void, and swore allegiance to Ferdinand VII. They also appointed a regency of three of their most popular officers, and vested in them the executive power.

19. Early in January, Suchet on the part of the French took Tortosa, and Soult, Olivenza. Through the whole of the preceding year Marshal Victor had been engaged in the siege of Cadiz, yet the place seemed no nearer being reduced. Massena retreated from Santarem, and was closely pursued by Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, who came up with him and defeated him in a sanguinary battle at Albuera. Wellington now commenced the siege of Badajoz'; but on the advance of the French, who were reinforced, he raised the siege and retired. Suchet besieged Terragona, which surrendered and experienced every species of shocking outrage. He next invaded Valencia, defeated the Spanish general Blake, and took the fortress of Murviedro.

20. Hamburg was now annexed to the French empire. Austria was recruiting her finances, and recovering from the depression into which her wars with France had plunged her. The marriage of Napoleon with Maria Louisa seemed to give to Francis a prospect of permanent friendship with France; but Austria, and also Prussia, felt humbled at being made subservient instruments to the policy of France to humble Great Britain and aggrandize itself. Russia was in this year engaged in successful war with the Ottoman Porte. Alexander had been careful not to offend Napoleon, but he was yet able to withstand his power; and he was the only continental sovereign who could. Causes of difference had arisen between them, and appearances were ominous of approaching war. Denmark, from fear of France, kept up the show of hostility

towards England. Sweden had accepted as the heir of her monarchy Marshal Bernadotte, an officer of Napoleon. Such was the situation of Europe at the opening of the year 1812.

21. In Spain, Lord Wellington, who still commanded the allies, took Badajos and Ciudad Roderigo, obtained a decisive victory at Salamanca, and soon afterwards entered Madrid, which Joseph Bonaparte evacuated on his approach. Alexander of Russia had issued in March a formal declaration of war against France, having previously made peace with the Porte and settled all disputes with England. After vast preparations, Napoleon began early in the spring to march numerous bodies of his troops into the interior of Germany; and in May he set out from Paris, accompanied by the Empress Maria Louisa. After receiving the flattering homage of the various German monarchs whose dominions he visited, he met the Emperor Francis II at Dresden; and being assured of the alliance of Austria and Prussia, he proceeded northward. He crossed the Vistula with 500,000 men. His armies, which had been directed to open a passage to St. Petersburg, were foiled in their attempt. The Russians under Count Wittgenstein defeated a French army under Oudinot at Polotsk, and General Essen, who commanded at Riga, checked the advance of the French under Macdonald.

22. On the 17th of August, Napoleon attacked the main Russian army at Smolensko. The Russians, after a valiant con-
1812. test retired; but the French, on entering the city, found it in flames. The Russian army now retreated to a position near Moscow, where Kutu'soff was called to the command. The French came up with the Russians at Borodi'no, where a desperate battle was fought, which continued with great fury through a whole day, and left the French masters of the bloody field, on which lay 10,000 of their own dead. The Russians acknowledged a loss of 25,000.

23. Kutusoff, unable to withstand the invaders, retired with his army to the provinces beyond Moscow. On the 14th of September the French entered that venerable city, but found it deserted by its inhabitants, and on fire. Napoloeon was alarmed, for he had intended to winter in Moscow; and he made strenuous efforts to save it, but in vain. For one fire extinguished, ten were set. Women as well as men, with blazing torches, were seen madly running from house to house till their incendiary work was done.

Napoleon speaks thus of the horrors of the scene: "It was the spectacle of a sea and billows of fire, a sky and clouds of flame; mountains of red rolling flames, like immense waves of the sea, alternately bursting forth and elevating themselves to skies of fire, and then sinking into the ocean of flame below." The destruction of the city which precluded the possibility of making it his winter quarters, and the assemblages of Russian troops around Moscow, induced the French emperor to offer terms of peace. The reply was that no terms could be listened to, while the enemy remained in the country.

24. Napoleon lost some weeks in awaiting answers to despatches which he had sent to St. Petersburg. No alternative but retreat was now left; and humiliating as was the measure, he embraced it. Dividing his forces, he directed Murat and Beauharnais, with a detachment of 50,000 men, to attack the grand Russian army while he led the remainder on the route to Minsk. Murat and Beauharnais met with a severe repulse, and the whole French army continued its retreat under the most distressing circumstances. The cold, which now came on with unusual severity, destroyed immense numbers, and unfitted the survivors for vigorous exertions; while the hardy Russians pursued close upon their heels, and slaughtered them at every turn. At the passage of Berezi'na, Napoleon, to save the main body of his army, ordered the bridge on which they had crossed to be blown up. But a portion of the French were still on the other side. As they were rushing towards it, driven by the fire of their pursuers, they heard a crash,—and the bridge blew up. Uttering shrieks of despair, numbers plunged into the stream, and sunk amidst floating ice, while the remainder were butchered by the Russians. When the army reached Wilna, Napoleon gave the chief command to Murat, and himself hastened to bear to France the tale of his misfortunes. Marshal Ney commanded the rear, and that generous soldier was himself the last man to quit the hostile frontier. *Thus was destroyed what had been the most formidable army of modern times. Out of the 500,000 men who composed it, not more than 50,000,—one in ten,—recrossed the Russian frontier.*

25. The allies of Napoleon whose friendship was founded in necessity, and the nations whose submission to France had been obtained at the point of the bayonet, now showed their readiness to emancipate themselves from the yoke.

1813.

Prussia gave the signal of defection, and early this year leagued itself with Russia and England. Sweden, already in the interest of Russia, soon joined *"The Sixth Coalition."*

26. On the return of Napoleon to Paris, his genius appeared invested with new splendor; and the hold which he possessed upon the affection of the French seemed strengthened by misfortune. Though all of France was thrown into mourning, the nation responded to the call of their sovereign; and new levies to the amount of 350,000 men were made early in the spring of 1813. The wreck of the grand army with which Napoleon had entered Russia had been placed in the fortresses occupied by the French in Prussia.

27. The Russian armies now advanced, and the inhabitants of all the countries on their route everywhere joined them; and the French were compelled to abandon their fortresses and retreat. Alexander and Frederic fixed their headquarters at Dresden. Napoleon advanced at the head of his new recruits. At Lutzen the French met the army of the allies and, after a bloody conflict, remained masters of the field. Unable to maintain themselves on the Elbe, the main army of the allies retreated from Dresden (which Napoleon took), to Bautzen, where another battle was fought with great loss on both sides. The French again conquered, but the allies retired in good order. An armistice of six weeks took place.

28. Napoleon might now, by the surrender of his conquests, have negotiated; but in an interview with the Austrian minister, Metternich, he refused this, and Austria joined the allies. Hostilities were renewed in August, when Napoleon had 250,000 men in various posts in Saxony and Silesia. The allies attacked Dresden during the absence of Napoleon in Silesia, but his rapid return defeated their plans. He saved the city, and killed or made prisoners 25,000 of their troops. At Culm the allies obtained a victory over the French general Vandamme'. The Prussian general Blucher was victorious at the Katzbach, and in other quarters the allies gained advantages over the generals of Napoleon. He now concentrated his forces, and marched to Leipsic. On the 15th of October the grand army of the allies advanced; and at Leipsic, the great battle which decided Napoleon's fate begun and continued for three days. Napoleon, watching its progress, saw the princes of the "Confederation of the

1813.

Rhine" pass over with their troops to the enemies. This was the fatal stroke. He lost the battle and his fortunes were irretrievably fallen. Again he sought his capital, followed by the remnant of a noble army, and arrived at Paris on the 9th of November.

29. The Spanish campaign had been equally disastrous. The French generals, not being reinforced, could maintain only a defensive warfare. At Vittoria the English and the patriots, under Wellington, obtained a great and decisive victory over Joseph, who was retreating with immense treasures towards France. All became the booty of the conquerors, who were now masters of the peninsula. After the retreat of Napoleon from Germany, the garrisons which had been left there were forced, one by one, to surrender. The allied sovereigns now advanced upon the Rhine; and with the opening of the next campaign France was on all sides threatened with invasion. Wellington had entered upon its southern frontier, and the Russians and Austrians were ready to advance on the side of the Rhine. Holland, without tumult or bloodshed, emancipated herself from the French yoke, and reconstructed her ancient government. Murat, the king of Naples, ungratefully abandoned Napoleon now, in the time of his utmost need.

30. The French people were worn out with war; and all efforts to rouse the national spirit and recruit the army proved ineffectual. The allies entered France; and Napoleon, after making the most of his inadequate means of defense, found himself surrounded by difficulties which no genius or skill could surmount. On the 30th of March, 1814, the allies advanced upon Paris. The Empress Maria Louisa and all the civil authorities left the city, and a French army which had taken a position on the heights of Montmartre, near Paris, was defeated. On the following day the metropolis was given up to the allied sovereigns.

31. Wellington advanced to Bourdeaux, and there erected the standard of the Bourbons. The Austrians made themselves masters of Lyons. Napoleon, who had been engaged in attempts to obstruct and prevent the union of the grand armies, was still manœuvering with 50,000 men to relieve Paris, when he learned of its capitulation to the Russian and Prussian sovereigns. With an agonized mind he retired, and stationed himself at Fontainbleau. There he learned of the general defection of the people. On the 11th of April, 1814, he signed an act of abdication, renouncing for himself and for his family the thrones of France and Italy. He received

from the allies the sovereignty of a small island chosen by himself—Elba, in the Mediterranean, where he was to retain the imperial title and to receive an income from France. Alexander made himself justly popular with the French, chiefly by his giving freedom to the prisoners of Napoleon's army, by which 150,000 Frenchmen were restored to their families.

32. A new constitution, dictated by the allied sovereigns, was received by the French Senate. *France was reduced to the limits which it had possessed at the beginning of the Revolution.* The Bourbons were recalled; and Louis XVIII, who had been residing in England, was declared king. He had a task to perform in rewarding friends, responding to the claims of the old royalists, and quieting enemies; and to this he was not equal. The year had not expired before discontent and murmurs were heard, and intrigues and conspiracies were carried on. A congress of the allied sovereigns had assembled at Vienna, to adjust the concerns of Europe. It had not yet adjourned when, ten months from his departure for Elba, Napoleon again trod the soil of France. With his imperial guard of Elba, numbering about 1,000 men, he escaped from the island, landed in France at Cannes, near Frejus, and at once advanced towards Paris. The troops stationed in his course were in vain exhorted by the officers of the king to oppose his progress. The sight of their old general awakened pleasing remembrances of the past, and dreams of future glory, and they hailed him with joyous acclamations. At Grenoble, where he first met his former soldiers, they seemed for a moment to hesitate. Napoleon advanced alone, and offered his breast, saying, "Let him who will, kill his emperor." Overcome by the appeal, they threw down their arms, and rushed to embrace him. The troops of Lyons followed their example, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the brother and nephew of the king.

33. Louis, meanwhile, had done the best in his power to arrest the progress of Napoleon. But he knew not whom to trust. Ney promised to bring Napoleon back in a cage, and Louis gave him the command of the army stationed at Melun, to oppose an entrance to the capital. This army was drawn up to await the one which Napoleon had collected on his way. A galloping of horses was heard; and Napoleon himself, with a few attendants, arrived at full speed in an open carriage. He leaped from his vehicle, and threw himself into their arms. Their hearts melted; and thus, the

proudest of his victories, Napoleon won over the last army which Louis could bring into the field. On the 20th of March Louis again went into exile, and established his little court at Ostend.

34. When the news of Napoleon's debarkation from Elba was made known to the sovereigns at Vienna, they burst into a laugh. Scornfully rejecting the proffers of Napoleon for a reconciliation, they issued their manifesto declaring that he had forfeited the only legal title to life, and that he was "a disturber of the public tranquillity, and without the pale of civil and social relations." Great Britain, Austria, and Prussia reassembled large armies. England gave not only men, but eleven million pounds sterling, which was paid in subsidies to the allies. The whole fortified frontier of the Belgic provinces on the side of France was occupied by strong garrisons, chiefly of the troops in British pay, of which Wellington took the command. The Prussian army under Blucher advanced to coöperate with him. The allies had in arms, in their various positions, upwards of a million of troops to make war, as they declared, upon one man.

35. The efforts of Napoleon were unremitting and gigantic. He raised an army of 200,000 men—a force which, though vastly inferior to that of the allies, was yet formidable. On the 16th of June, Napoleon obtained at Ligny his last victory, in which he compelled the Russians to retreat. On the 18th was fought the ever memorable battle of Waterloo. The Prussians were commanded by Blucher, the English by Wellington, and the French were for the last time under the eye of Napoleon. The battle was long and obstinately contested. It ended in the complete triumph of the allies, and the sun of Napoleon now set forever.

1815.

36. He returned to Paris, and there found that he had no longer the confidence of the nation. Some proposed that he should dissolve the legislative chambers, and assume the dictatorship. La Fayette, then a member of the body, came forward, and made and carried a motion that all attempts to dissolve the Assembly at that important crisis should be high treason. "France," he said, "has shed blood enough for the ambition of one man. Against the force in arms it is vain to attempt resistance." Napoleon abdicated, recommending his son; but the Assembly made no pledge. Napoleon then, having taken a sorrowful farewell of his army, went to Rochefort, designing to embark

for America. The harbor was blockaded by a British squadron. He went on board one of the ships and surrendered himself to the commander, claiming that as he was self-delivered, he should receive the hospitality of the British nation. They sent him to
1815. St. Helena, a rock in the ocean. He died six years later; and in a little grass-grown nook two weeping willows marked the grave of Napoleon. But the everlasting mountains above and the perpetual sea below were regarded by the
1821. passing mariners as emblems of his genius and of his fame.

37. On the final abdication of Napoleon the command of the French army devolved on Marshal Davoust. By a military convention with Blucher and Wellington he withdrew his army behind the Loire, and Paris was again occupied with foreign troops, under whose protection Louis XVIII for a second time took possession of the throne. France was now compelled to surrender some of her most flourishing provinces, to maintain for five years a foreign army in eighteen fortresses on the north and east, to pay a tribute of 700,000,000 francs, and to restore numerous works of art to the nations from which Napoleon had taken them. Marshal Ney was condemned and shot, contrary to the treaty of capitulation. Murat, who had been deposed, made a foolish attempt to regain the throne of Naples; but he was taken as he landed on the shore, and afterwards shot. Alexander of Russia, having assumed the title of czar and king of Poland, gave the Poles, by a charter, the semblance of constitutional liberty. He appointed Constantine, his brother, commander-in-chief of the kingdom.

38. A grand league, called the Holy Alliance, was now formed at Paris by Austria, Russia, and Prussia; and although it was invested with high pretensions of religion, yet its real object, as interpreted by its acts, was *to crush the spirit of constitutional liberty* introduced into Europe by the American Revolution, and thus to quiet the monarchies in irresponsible absolutism. The originators of this league were Alexander of Russia and Prince Metternich, the Richelieu of his time, who had already for ten years been the real ruler of Austria. As minister to France, Metternich had by his seductive elegance of speech and manner first gained the ear of Napoleon, and then wheedled him into the Austrian marriage, thus creating in him a false dependence on Austria, which at a moment then anticipated by this wily states-

man, was withdrawn and Napoleon, as we have seen, was ruined. Wherever delegates of the allied powers were met to legislate, Metternich was president of the congress; and during its recess he was its executive. *This gave him the virtual headship of Continental Europe;* and contented with the reality of power without its show, he retained it for more than thirty years. Sitting at Vienna, as a spider in its web, he watched with Argus-eyes the feebler powers; and if any of their people presumed to form for themselves free institutions, forth darted the Austrian troops, who violated the nationality and crushed the hopes of the people.

Twenty years after the death of Napoleon, Louis Philippe, then reigning as king of the French, gratified the sentiments of the people by requesting of the British government permission to translate the remains of the hero to Paris. This was cordially granted; and in a funeral pageant unique in history the ashes of Napoleon were borne to a resting place in the noble structure known as the Invalides, on the bank of the Seine.

1841.

Biographers and historical critics have differed widely in their estimates of Napoleon. For a long time he was almost deified by some, and utterly execrated by others. The more moderate opinion of the present day finds in him a compound of good and evil, of greatness and littleness. He conferred lasting benefits as an organizer of the forces of reform and improvement, and this is his best claim upon the remembrance of mankind.

QUESTIONS.—What account can you give of the coronation mentioned? What other coronation besides that of Paris is related? To whom may Napoleon be compared, in respect of the empire which he ruled? What powers now coalesced against France? What nation was with France? Give an account of Napoleon's invasion of Germany—of the battle of Austerlitz. What treaty followed this great battle? What power now joined England in a fourth coalition against France? What had provoked the king of Prussia? Relate the military operations of the Prussians and French. What system did Napoleon commence, and what decree did he issue from the capital of Prussia? Relate the military operations of the Russians and the French. What followed the battle of Friedland? What conditions did Napoleon make with Prussia? What new kingdom was made, and for whom? Give an account of the contest between the Danes and the English. What addition to his dominions did Napoleon now covet? What treaty was formed between him and the Spanish sovereign? How did Napoleon contrive to get an army into Spain? What declaration was made by Napoleon? What was done by the royal family of Portugal? Relate

the course of events by which the kings of Spain, father and son, became prisoners of Napoleon. What new arrangements did he make with his kings? What is remarked concerning Napoleon's conduct towards Spain? What is here said respecting the "Code Napoleon"? What did Napoleon do to encourage education? Give an account of Spain, and the exertion of the patriots. What occurred in England? What alliance did the English now form? Describe the battle of Vimeria, and the events which followed. Relate the course of events in the peninsula from the time of Napoleon's taking command till after the battle of Corunna. What had been doing in the north of Europe? What did Napoleon do in Spain? What, in the meantime, had happened in Germany? Relate Napoleon's campaign of 1809. What is remarked concerning the peace of Vienna? What did Napoleon do on his return to France? Relate the British expedition into Holland, with the affair of Walcheren. Give an account of the peninsular war in 1809—of the military operations in 1810. What was done by Cortes? What were the principal events of the campaign of 1811? What is said of Hamburg at this period?—of Austria?—of Prussia?—of Russia?—of Denmark?—of Sweden? What military events occurred in Spain? What was now done by Russia? Describe Napoleon's advance towards Russia? What were his numbers? At what place were his troops checked by the Russians? What happened at Smolensk?—at Borodino? Relate the scenes of Moscow. Describe the retreat of Napoleon's army from Moscow. Who carried the news of these disasters to Paris? What is said of Ney? What remarks are made concerning the army? To what had Napoleon owed the friendship of his allies? What nations were now leagued against him, and what was the league called? What is said of Napoleon's demeanor on his return to Paris? What was the conduct of the people of France? What was the number of the new army? Where was the wreck of that with which Napoleon invaded Russia? What is related of the Russian and Prussian armies, and of their sovereigns? Relate the military operations till after the armistice of Pleswitz. With whom did Napoleon now have an interview, and what opportunity did he let slip? Give an account of the military operations previous to the battle of Leipsic—of that battle and its consequences. Give an account of the military operations in Spain—of the position of France at the beginning of the campaign of 1814. What was now done by Holland? What is said of Marat? Relate the advance of the allies to Paris. At what time did they enter the city? Describe the situation of France in regard to the invading armies. Which of the allies first entered Paris, and when? What was now the course of Napoleon? What was done by the allied sovereigns? What was the position of Louis XVIII? Where had the congress of allied sovereigns met? Describe the course of Napoleon from the 1st to the 12th of March. Relate the occurrences to the 20th of March. What effect did the news of Napoleon's return produce on the sovereigns at Vienna? What manifesto did they issue? What nations took up arms again? What did England contribute? What troops were on the northern frontier? What army was now raised by Napoleon? Give a sketch of his short campaign, till after the 18th of June. What occurred after Napoleon's return to Paris? What was

proposed in the Assembly by La Fayette? Relate the sequel of Napoleon's history. What occurred in Paris on the abdication of Napoleon? What were the French compelled by the allies to do? What is related of Marshal Ney? What was the fate of Murat? What was done by Alexander in respect of Poland? What nations now entered into a league? What was it called, and what was its real character? Who were its principal contrivers? What was the character of Metternich, as shown by his course with Napoleon? Who gave him the virtual headship of Continental Europe? How long did he retain his power, and why? When were the remains of Napoleon translated to Paris? What is the author's estimate of Napoleon's life and character?

XIII. Revolutions in the Nineteenth Century.

1. The desire of the people for more liberty, and a growing appreciation of human rights, distinguished the nineteenth century, in the first quarter of which the revolutionary spirit awoke in Spanish America, in the Spanish and Portuguese nations, in the Italian peninsula, and in the Turkish empire.

2. In Venezuela the arms of the patriot Simon Bolivar triumphed, and New Granada, now Colombia, became independent of Spain. Uruguay achieved its independence in 1816, Chile in 1818, Peru and Guatemala in 1821.

3. Mexico began a war for independence in 1813. This was secured in 1822 by Agustin Iturbide, who was made emperor but was compelled to abdicate in the following year, when a republic was established, which soon degenerated into turbulence and disorder.

4. In Brazil, where the royal family of Portugal had resided in 1808, reforms were the order of the day. The slave trade and the Inquisition were abolished, and trade with all nations was fostered. In 1815, King John VI returned to Portugal, leaving his son Pedro as viceroy in Brazil. In 1822 the Brazilians declared their independence of the mother country, and proclaimed Pedro emperor of the vast Portuguese domain in South America. On the death of his father, Pedro became king of Portugal, but the new constitution of Brazil prohibited him from leaving the empire. He therefore resigned the throne of Portugal to his daughter, Maria da Gloria, who as a liberal ruler maintained her power against her reactionist uncle Dom Miguel, who contested for the throne.

5. In Brazil the emperor failed to satisfy the demand for more reforms, and was led in 1831 to abdicate the throne to his

young son Pedro II, who reigned until 1890, when he was expelled and a republic was established.

6. Russia, as we have seen, often had able foreigners in its employ. Such were the Greek Count Capo D'Istrias, the Greek Alexander Ypsilanti, and others. Their hearts were set upon the release of their country from Turkish rule; and Russia, willing to weaken the Porte in order that it might take the Turkish provinces, encouraged the Greeks to raise the standard of revolt. They formed a secret society called "the Hetaireia," the members of which were bound by oath to stand by each other, for the liberties of Greece. They then openly revolted. The Turks, of course, made war upon them to reduce them to submission. Russia, having thus divided the Turkish empire against itself, treacherously withheld her promised aid, and left the Greeks to fight their own battles. With them the struggle now was not for liberty only, but for life; and there is nothing in the history of ancient Greece to surpass the fierce valor with which the modern Greeks resisted their oppressors. Even the women took arms.

7. Turkish vengeance attacked first the Greek clergy; and Gregory, the venerable patriarch of Constantinople, was barbarously slain, at the door of his sanctuary. This act roused the Greeks, and appalling horrors were perpetrated in the conflicts which ensued. The Greeks were without a government, and without support, except what they received from the charitable associations in Great Britain, France, and America. Yet they proceeded in 1822 to form a union under an independent federative government.

1821.

8. Fifteen thousand of the most barbarous of the Asiatic Turks were let loose upon the beautiful island of Scio. The Sciotes resisted, but were overpowered. Their little paradise was laid waste, and 40,000 men, women, and unresisting children were massacred, while 30,000 were carried into Mahometan captivity. The Turkish fleet now took on board the murderers who were prepared to desolate the Morea. The Ipsariotes, with the courage of desperation, grappled their fire-ships to the ship commanded by the Turkish admiral, which blew up, destroying three thousand men.

9. Great Britain interfered; and on the 6th of July, 1827, by the treaty of London, the ministers of Great Britain, France, and Russia guaranteed the pacification of Greece. The ministers of the three powers notified the Turkish

1827.

government, that "Greece must thereafter govern itself." The Turks rejected the offered pacification of the three powers; and Ibrahim, with the Turkish-Egyptian fleet, entered the bay of Navarino. While it was lying there in order of battle, the combined British, French, and Russian fleets approached, and a deadly conflict ensued. The Turkish armada of 110 ships fought with desperation. Not a flag was struck, and the whole fleet was either burnt, sunk, or disabled. Hostilities now ceased, and the sultan soon afterwards acceded to the treaty of London.

1827.

10. The Greeks had chosen a republican form of government, and had made Count Capo D'Istrias their president; but the combined powers, having decided that the government must be monarchical, conferred the crown upon Prince Otho, second son of Louis, king of Bavaria. Otho's ministers, in organizing the government, gratified the people by establishing the religion of the Greek church, which is also that of Russia. Commerce and agriculture began to revive, and schools were encouraged. On the 5th of July, 1834, a royal decree was issued to encourage the spread of female education over Greece, by the establishment of a school at Athens for the instruction of female teachers.[1] The Greeks had been long petitioning for a charter of rights. Not receiving this just claim, they combined and, in the summer of 1843, compelled Otho to grant them a constitutional government.

In 1861 the Greeks rose in revolution against their king, who had proved a worthless and vicious sovereign, and deposed him. A younger son of Christian IX of Denmark was elected to the throne as George I. The selection proved fortunate for Greece, because of the powerful family influence which it enlisted in behalf of the little kingdom. Two of King George's sisters were married, respectively, to the Emperor Alexander II of Russia and King Edward VII of the United Kingdom.

A great wave of revolution swept over Europe in 1848, which was checked by stern measures of government; and while concessions were granted here and there, a spirit of reaction set in which long repressed the liberal tendencies in many lands. Yet in the tardy outcome Italy became regenerated and united, France accepted of a republic, and the Balkan peoples gradually broke away from the Porte, until its dominion in Europe was reduced to a small area.

[1] This school was projected by a society of ladies in the United States.

In 1830 the southern provinces of the Netherlands seceded from that kingdom and established their independence, forming the kingdom of Belgium, of which Leopold, a German prince (the uncle of Queen Victoria) was chosen king. The people are generally Catholics, and French is the principal language of the cultivated people, whereas the Hollanders, from whom they separated, are Protestant and speak the Dutch language. The independence

1830. of Belgium was guaranteed by the leading powers of Europe.

The revolutionary storm in Continental Europe affected many dynasties. Louis Philippe, the "Citizen King," was driven from

1848. France, and a second republic was established. This at once fell into the hands of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, putative son of Napoleon's brother Louis, and grandson of the empress Josephine. Elected president for four years, he overthrew the republic before his term expired, and made himself dictator in 1851, then emperor in 1852. Rejected by the princely women to whom he offered his hand, he married a Spanish lady unconnected with any royal house, and maintained himself until 1870, when he was taken prisoner by the Germans, and his dynasty was overthrown.

In Austria there were uprisings of the Hungarians and the Bohemians, which were repressed with difficulty. The peasants were freed from serfdom as a result of the turmoil.

In Italy the governments made promises to reform, in order to save themselves; but when the storm passed over, these promises

1848. were generally forgotten. Charles Albert, of the kingdom of Sardinia, in the northwestern part of Italy, was true to his promises. In 1849 he abdicated in favor of his son Victor Emmanuel II, who came to represent liberal monarchy.

1848. The Venetian republican movement under Manin was crushed by Austria. The Roman republic of Mazzini was short-lived, being suppressed by Louis Napoleon, who restored Pope Pius IX to the papal dominions. A decade later Sardinia

1859. and Lombardy, aided by the French emperor, successfully resisted the Austrians, and they soon became united under Victor Emmanuel. Naples was set free by a revolution led by Garibaldi in 1860, and joined the new kingdom of Italy, which was voluntarily joined by Tuscany, Parma, Modena,

1866. and the Romagna. Venice was freed from Austria as a result of the Seven Weeks' War of 1866, and was added to the kingdom. And Rome was occupied in 1870, the pope
1870. retaining only his spiritual authority as head of the church. Rome then became the capital of United Italy.

The Turkish garrisons were driven from the Christian provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia during a contest of several years, which began in 1859. In 1866 they were united to form the kingdom
1866. of Roumania, and Charles, a German prince of the family of Hohenzollern, was chosen to be king. Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina likewise rose against their cruel oppressors, the Turks. The whole matter of government in the Balkans was left for adjustment to the Berlin Conference of 1878, which has preserved the peace of Europe for thirty years.

The revolutions in the German States in 1848 were suppressed with little gain to popular government. The great desire of the German people was first for national unity. This was largely secured in 1871, a new German empire being formed under the hereditary leadership of the king of Prussia. The new empire, however, does not include the German-speaking States of Austria.

QUESTIONS.—By what was the nineteenth century distinguished? How did this spirit manifest itself in America in the years 1816-21? How did Brazil become independent of Portugal? Who was Maria da Gloria? Who was Bolivar? Who was Iturbide? What year was especially memorable for revolutionary uprisings on the Continent of Europe? What and when was the Belgian revolution? What was achieved in France? How was Italy freed from the old despotisms, and how united? What was accomplished in the Austrian dominions? What was accomplished in the Balkan States, and when? To what empire did Greece belong? What Greeks were in the service of Russia, what did they desire, and what encouragement did they receive? What did they then do? What part did Russia now take? What was the character of the struggle in which the Greeks were now engaged? Who were the first objects of the vengeance of the Turks? In what year did the Greeks form an independent government? What was the first act of the Turks after their suspension? What numbers were massacred and carried away prisoners to Scio? What was done by the men of Ispara? What power now interfered, and what treaty was made? What notice was given to the Turkish authorities, and how did they receive it? Relate the battle which followed, with its results. What government had the Greeks chosen? What form of government did the allied powers impose upon them, and who was made king? What is said of religion and education in Greece? What was the revolution of 1861?

Mangnall's Summary of French History.

A confederacy of German tribes, having conquered the Lombards, assumed the name of Franks (the Free).

Pharamond became the first king of the French in the year 420. He was famed as a warrior and politician.

Clodion, son of Pharamond, 428, was continually at war with the Romans, and lost several battles.

THE MEROVINGIANS.

Merovee, first of the Merovingians, 447. The annals of his reign are lost in clouds of mist and obscurity, and history says little about him. The name of Gaul was now finally exchanged for that of France.

Childeric I, son of Merovee, 458. He abandoned himself entirely to his pleasures; and the French lords uniting to dethrone him, Count Giles was chosen king in his stead. But upon his promise of better conduct he was recalled and again seated upon the throne.

Clovis I, of the Merovingian race, 481. In his reign Christianity became the religion of the state. He performed many great exploits, founded several churches and monasteries, and published the Salic laws. He was famed for his valor, but it was tinctured with inhumanity. He extinguished the Roman dominion in Gaul by the victory of Soissons, in 486, over the Roman general Syagrius; reduced the Alemanni, Bretons, and Visigoths; extended his dominions from the mouth of the Rhine to Toulouse; and made Lutetia, or Paris, his capital. He had been converted to Christianity by his wife Clotilda, daughter of Childeric, whom he married in 493; and he crowned himself at Rheims, when he was anointed with the miraculous oil, said to have been brought down from heaven by a dove, whence his successors received from the pope the title of "Most Christian King," and "eldest son of the church." He died in 511, and is interred in the church of St. Genevieve, in Paris.

Childebert I, son of Clovis, 511. He laid the foundation of

Notre Dame, a celebrated church at Paris; reigned with wisdom and moderation, and was universally regretted by his people.

Clotaire I succeeded his brother Childebert in 558, having previously shared in the government. He was a cruel barbarian. He killed two of his nephews, and aimed at the life of the third. His reign was one continued scene of horrors and murders.

Caribert, son of Clotaire, 562. This prince having raised successively to a share in his throne two females of the lowest birth, the Bishop of Paris thought proper to excommunicate him. Caribert had a taste for literature, and some historians represent him as a good king.

Chilperic I, brother of Caribert, 567. This prince, for his repeated cruelties, was called the Nero of France. He loaded his subjects with taxes, and many on this account were compelled to quit their native soil. He at last met with the just recompense of his crimes, and was assassinated.

Clotaire II, 584. He was victorious over the Saxons, and reigned successfully.

Dagobert I, 628, succeeded his father Clotaire. He was enslaved by superstition, and bestowed great part of his revenues upon the monks, who, as a recompense, loaded him with flattery.

Clovis II, son of Dagobert, 638. In this reign France was afflicted with a great famine, and the king, to remove the necessities of the poor, caused the gold and silver ornaments with which the tombs of the nobility were decorated to be sold, and the money distributed among them.

Clotaire III, 660. In this reign, and the two preceding it, the power assumed by the mayors of the palace (or chief ministers) was so excessive that the kings were merely the tools of profligate and ambitious men who, under this title, bore the supreme sway.

Childeric II, 668. A weak and irresolute prince. His counsels quickly fell into contempt.

Thiery I, 673. The mayors of the palace in this reign usurped the regal power, and the only shadow of royalty that he possessed was the title of king.

Clovis III, son of Thiery, 690. This prince died at the age of fourteen, and performed no action worth recording.

Childebert II, 695. He was surnamed the Just, and exercised the confined authority allowed him by the mayors, in such a manner as to gain the hearts of his people.

Dagobert II, 711. He was twelve years of age when he ascended the throne, and he died at the age of seventeen, leaving only one son, who was judged by the mayors of the palace unfit to support the weight of government, and therefore was set aside by them.

Clotaire IV, 718. He reigned only one year. His indolence was such that he never interfered in the affairs of state, but left all to his ministers.

Chilperic II, 719. He emerged from that indolence in which the former Merovingian kings had been plunged, and asserted his right to govern alone against Charles Martel, a famous mayor of the palace, but with little success.

Thiery II, 721. During his minority Charles Martel continued to hold the sovereign authority (while Thiery bore the name of king), and distinguished himself by his wisdom and valor.

Childeric III, 743, surnamed the Simple, was the last of the Merovingian race. Charles, surnamed Martel, or the Hammer, from an iron mace which he bore in battle, died in this reign. He was mayor of the palace, and routed the Saracens with great slaughter at Poictiers. Pepin and Carloman, the sons of Charles, shared the supreme authority, and dethroned Childeric, who died in the monastery where he was confined.

The Carlovingians.

Pepin, the Little, or Short, 760, son of Charles Martel, succeeded to the undivided authority, and was particularly distinguished in the history of the second or Carlovingian race. He abolished the office of mayor of the palace, and governed alone. Pepin was a celebrated hero, and defeated the Saxons, Sclavonians, and Bavarians.

Charlemagne and Carloman, the sons of Pepin, 768. Carloman soon quitted the throne, and assumed the benedictine habit. Charlemagne then reigned alone. This great prince trod in the steps of his father. Literature and the sciences now dawned upon the nation; and Roland, or Orlando, the celebrated French hero, flourished at this period. Charlemagne extended his dominions from the Ebro to the Lower Elbe, the Soale, and the Raab; from the North Sea and the Eyder to the Garigliano, in Naples. He was master of France, Germany, and Italy, and he wrested Spain

from the Saracens. The emperors of Turkey and Persia sought his friendship, the latter conferring upon him the lieutenancy of the Holy Land. In 800 he was proclaimed emperor of the West, and was solemnly crowned by the pope.

Louis I, surnamed the Debonnair, 814, was the son of Charlemagne. He was weak and superstitious in the highest degree. He was twice deposed and taken prisoner by his children; yet upon being restored to the throne, he pardoned their offences. Soon after this he died; and his children, contending for empire, fought the first famous battle of Fontenoy, in which 100,000 French were killed. Under this prince the empire of Charlemagne fell to pieces.

Charles the Bald, grandson of Louis I, 840. By the treaty of Verdun, the separation of the German and Italian crowns from the French was completed, when Charles obtained France. The history of the kingdom of France, properly speaking, begins, therefore, with the treaty in 843. In this reign the Normans invaded and plundered France. Charles was hated by his subjects. He had few virtues and many vices. He was poisoned by a Jewish physician named Ledecias, in whom he placed great confidence.

Louis II, surnamed the Stammerer, 877. From this reign the kings of France ceased to possess the empire, acquired in the time of Charlemagne. Louis lavished the honors and estate of the crown; and his abilities were by no means adequate to his high station.

Louis III, and Carloman, the children of Louis the Stammerer, 879. They reigned jointly, with great harmony. The Normans again ravaged the French provinces, but were attacked and defeated by the brothers. Louis died first, and Carloman did not long survive, being mortally wounded by one of his servants who was aiming a javelin at a boar.

Charles the Fat, 884, emperor, was invited to accept the French monarchy. He was pious and devout; but wanting abilities and resolution, he incurred the contempt of his people and was declared incapable of holding the reins of government. He reunited, for a short time, the dominions of Charlemagne; but his subjects unanimously revolted, and a few months of disease and misery (in which he was compelled to beg his bread) were followed by his death.

Eudes, 888, was elected after the death of Charles. His reign

was short, turbulent, and glorious. He resigned the throne to Charles the Simple, son of Louis the Stammerer, and died shortly afterwards, beloved and regretted.

Charles the Simple, 898. He obtained this degrading name from the little improvement he made of the victories which he gained over the Duke of Lorraine. Rollo, the famous Norman chief, took the city of Rouen. Charles's people deserted him, and set up a new king, called Rodolph, or Randolph. Charles died in captivity.

Rodolph, who had been crowned before the death of Charles, succeeded in 924. He defeated the Normans and Hungarians. After his death France was again divided by rival claimants.

Louis IV, son of Charles the Simple, 936. He seized upon Normandy, and promised Hugh, Count of Paris, to share it with him; but Louis having broken his word, Hugh became his enemy. Louis's army was afterwards routed by the Danes. Louis was carried prisoner to Rouen, and committed to the custody of Hugh, who obliged him to enter Normandy and to restore it again to Richard, the lawful possessor.

Lothaire, son of Louis, 964. He possessed courage, activity, and vigilance. Hugh, Count of Paris, having ceded his rights to the throne, Lothaire gratefully acknowledged the favor by bestowing upon him the province of Aquitaine. Hugh died in this reign, leaving a son who was afterwards the renowned Hugh Capet. Lothaire is said to have been poisoned by his queen.

Louis V, surnamed the Slothful, 986. He reigned only one year, and was poisoned. Hugh Capet had been appointed his governor; but the wise counsels of Hugh were totally thrown away upon this headstrong prince, who was hated for his vices, and despised for his folly. He was the last of the Carlovingian race.

The Capets.

Hugh Capet, the powerful duke of the Isle of France, Count of Paris and Orleans, was raised by the nobility to the throne, 987. His reign was happy and glorious. His people felt and admired his virtues; and he transmitted to his son a peaceful and undivided inheritance.

Robert, the son of Hugh Capet, succeeded 996. France experienced the sad effects of a dreadful famine in this reign. The pope

threatened to excommunicate Robert for marrying Bertha, who was related to his father. His sons rebelled, instigated by their mother, but he compromised matters with them, and died highly regretted.

Henry I, son of Robert, 1031. He was brave and pious, and had many other good qualities. The custom of dueling was so prevalent in this reign that Henry enacted a severe law to put a stop to it. His people were frequently led out to war; for as he was jealous of the Normans, he tried every method to check their conquests.

Philip I, contemporary with William the Conqueror, 1000. Baldwin, Count of Flanders, was regent in his minority. Avarice, perfidy, and ingratitude were the striking features in this king's character. The Crusades for the recovery of the Holy Land from the Saracens were preached up in this reign, by Peter the Hermit. Philip's quarrels with William of England were frequent, and their issue bloody. In the latter part of his life, Philip abandoned himself wholly to voluptuous pleasures; and guided by his queen, an ambitious and wicked woman, he incurred the just hatred of his subjects.

Louis VI, surnamed the Gross, assumed the government in 1108, on the death of his father, Philip. He had all the qualities necessary to form a good king. He granted charters of incorporation to large towns, as a counterbalance to the feudal lords; he caused schools to be opened in all convents, and he established local militia. He challenged Henry I of England to single combat, to save greater effusion of blood; but his invitation being declined, he encountered and defeated the English in the field of battle. Henry now sought the aid of his son-in-law, the emperor; but Louis displayed the oriflamme, or banner of St. Denis, round which the nation rallied, and deterred the invaders. On his deathbed he is said to have delivered his ring to his son, with these words: "May the power with which you will shortly be invested be considered as a sacred trust, committed to you by Providence, for which you must be accountable in a future state." In this reign the free cities arose, bondage gradually disappeared, and prepared the way for the civil existence of the people.

Louis VII, surnamed the Young, to distinguish him from his father whose authority he had shared, ascended the throne, 1137. He commanded a fine army, the flower of France, in the Holy Land; but disease and the calamities of war had so decreased it

that on his return only the shattered remains accompanied him. During the absence of Louis his kingdom suffered all the miseries of depopulation. He was continually embroiled with England, and with his own barons. In this reign the troubadours, a kind of wandering French poets, resembling the Welsh bards, first appeared.

Philip II, surnamed Augustus, 1180. He engaged in the Crusades with Richard I of England. The monarchs quarreled; and on his return home, Philip attacked Richard's French dominions. He defeated the Emperor Otho, and the Earl of Flanders at Bouvines, banished the Jews from France, and curbed the influence of the clergy. He then endeavored to reform the manners of his people, protected and embellished those cities that acknowledged his sway, and released the people from the oppression of the soldiery. The orders of Dominicans and Franciscans were established, and this was the Philip who engaged in the cause of Arthur, Duke of Bretagne, against John, king of England.

Louis VIII, son of Philip, 1223. He reigned only three years, and in that time dispossessed the English of some lands in France. He is said to have died by poison. He left in his will legacies to 2,000 leprous persons, as that disorder then raged dreadfully.

Louis IX, the Saint, son of Louis VIII, 1226. He was a good but unfortunate prince. Undertaking an expedition to the Holy Land, he was defeated, and made prisoner by the Saracens. He might have escaped, but nobly disdained to forsake his subjects in their distress. On his return, after being ransomed, he foolishly resolved to engage in another crusade; and besieging Tunis in person, fell a victim to the plague. His confessor, Robert de Sorbon, instituted the University at Paris, called the Sorbonne, which afterwards became the most famous theological school in Europe. By the introduction of a new administration of justice, he gave new power to the crown.

Philip III, surnamed the Hardy, 1270. He continued the wars against the infidels, till he compelled the king of Tunis to sue for peace. Thus ended the Crusades, in which 2,000,000 men had been at different times engaged. In this reign was perpetrated that massacre of the French called the Sicilian Vespers. Philip conciliated the friendship of the English Edward I, and engaged in frequent wars with the Sicilians, in order to support the claims of his son to that throne. A general corruption of

manners scandalously prevailed at this period, and the Albigenses, who dwelt in the south of France, were now most inhumanly persecuted. The introduction of letters of nobility in this reign, was another blow to the already declining power of the nobles.

Philip IV (Le Bel), 1285. This prince continued the war with England, and joined Baliol, king of Scotland, against Edward. Philip was perpetually embroiled with Pope Boniface VIII, and Guy, Count of Flanders. He gained a decisive victory over the latter. The introduction of the Third Estate, a deputation of the cities, in the general assemblies of the clergy and nobility, was an important measure of this king. With the assistance of these feudal estates, Philip resisted the interdict of Boniface and the clergy. In this reign many of the Knights Templars, with their grand-master, were burnt alive at Paris, in presence of the king—an act characteristic of an age in which justice was the victim of power; and the Swiss asserted their independence, by the three cantons of Switz, Uri, and Underwald throwing off the Austrian yoke.

Louis X, surnamed Hutin, 1314. He strangled his queen, on account of her repeated enormities, and espoused Clemence, daughter of the king of Hungary. On his accession, finding the treasury in an exhausted state, he accused Marigni, who had been his father's minister, as the source of the national necessities, and seized upon Marigni's fortune to defray the expenses of the coronation. That unfortunate nobleman in vain endeavored to vindicate his honor. He was condemned to expire on a gibbet; and the king, after a short reign of two years, died by poison given him by the friends of Marigni.

Philip V, surnamed the Young, succeeded his brother by virtue of the Salic law, which excluded the daughter of Louis, in 1316. A contagious disorder raged in France, and the superstitious people imputed it to the Jews' having poisoned the waters. Philip's kingdom was torn by faction, and he died after a short reign of six years.

Charles IV, 1322. This prince was the last of the Capetine line. He expelled the Lombards and Italians from his dominions, for their extortion. He countenanced Isabella, of England, the queen of Edward II (and the sister of Charles) in her opposition to her husband and his favorites. Charles tried unsuccessfully

to reunite the kingdoms of France and the empire. He had neither shining talents nor great vices.

The Valois.

Philip VI, the first of the line of Valois, 1328. Edward III, of England, asserted his claim to the French crown. Philip, however, succeeded by the Salic law, and called upon Edward to do him homage; but receiving no satisfactory reply, he seized upon Edward's French territories. Edward, to recover his dominions, performed the subjection required. Discontents were again renewed; and the English, in a naval engagement, took 230 of the French ships. Philip also lost 30,000 seamen, and two admirals. Four years afterwards was fought the memorable battle of Cressy. Hugh, Count of Dauphiné gave up his dominions to the French crown, on condition that the king's eldest son should bear the title of Dauphin.

John, surnamed the Good, succeeded his father in 1350. This prince was very unfortunate in his wars with England. In the battle of Poictiers he and his son Philip were taken prisoners, and the French army was totally routed. On promise of paying a ransom amounting to 4,000,000 of gold crowns, and of resigning Guienne and other provinces, he was permitted, after four years' captivity, to revisit his native soil. He found that the miseries of his people had been heightened by civil commotions, the consequence of his son's inexperience. France was plundered by banditti, and the Jacquerie, a mass of furious peasantry, in 1358, satiated their spirit of vengeance in the blood of the nobility. A pestilence carried off 30,000 of his subjects; and bowed down by calamity, he returned to expire in England.

Charles V, the Wise, son of John, 1364. Du Guesclin, his constable, the celebrated French commander, lived in this reign. After the death of Edward, and the Black Prince, he retook most of the English possessions in France, and restored order for a short period. Charles died in the prime of life, from the effects of poison.

Charles VI, 1380, son of the late king. He labored under an unfortunate imbecility of mind, caused by a fright he received. The war with England was renewed. The gallant De Courcy fought on the French side; but the battle of Agincourt gave the

English a decided superiority. Henry V, their king, gave his hand to Catharine, the French king's daughter. Charles shortly after died, in 1422, abandoned by his subjects, who directed their attention to Henry of England, his expected successor. This was the epoch of the Armagners. A civil war of the crown vassals, conducted by Orleans and Burgundy, was sustained by assassination, and the succession settled upon Henry V, of England, to the exclusion of the Dauphin, afterwards king Charles VII.

Henry V of England, upon the death of his father, was proclaimed king of France, when only nine months old, 1422; but at this time, amidst the licentiousness of war, of factions, and of manners, a peasant girl animated the French in the cause of the Dauphin. This was the famous Joan of Arc, Maid of Orleans, who, assisting and heading the dispirited troops of Charles the Dauphin, by which the English were defeated, obliged Henry to relinquish his claim; and Charles the Dauphin ascended the throne of his ancestors, with the title of Charles VII.

Charles VII, surnamed the Victorious, 1436. When the rage of civil war had abated, he endeavored to regulate the disordered finances, and restore commerce. He deprived the English of their dominions in France; but he experienced a series of domestic calamities, occasioned by the intrigues, and daring spirit of his son (afterwards Louis XI), who proceeded to acts of open rebellion against him. Charles, suspecting Louis of an intention to poison him, refused all nourishment for some days. He fell a victim to his distrust, and died in that deplorable situation. Charles was the first king who instituted a standing army, 1444.

Louis XI succeeded, 1461. The title of Most Christian King was given him by the pope, though it was little suited to his character, as he was dreaded by all his subjects and hated by his neighbors. This prince assisted the famous Earl of Warwick, with a fleet and army, to restore Henry VI of England to his throne. After Henry's death Louis ransomed Margaret of Anjou from Edward IV. The French monarchy became absolute in this reign. Charles, Duke of Burgundy, was the constant opposer of this ambitious king, whose oppression and barbarities must shock every heart not dead to the feelings of humanity. The motto, a maxim of this cruel prince, was *Dissimuler c'est regner.*[1] The 280 years' quarrel with the house of Strasburg, which obtained

[1] To dissimulate is to reign.

the inheritance of Burgundy, on the death of Charles the Bald, originated in this reign.

Charles VIII, 1483, being in his minority, Anne, eldest daughter of Louis XI, was chosen regent. She possessed strong powers of mind and great prudence. Charles, on his marriage with Anne of Bretagne, which accomplished the union of that duchy with Nantes, took the cares of state upon him; and, complying with the entreaties of the ambitious Ludovico Sforza, he attempted the conquest of Naples, whose king was oppressed by age and infirmities, as heir of Anjou. The French king besieged that city in person, defeated the Neapolitans, and obliged their monarch (Ferdinand II) to fly. He soon, however, by force of arms, regained his throne, and Charles died not long afterwards. He was the last king of the house of Valois.

Louis XII, surnamed the Father of his People, 1498. He engaged in wars with the Venetians and Milanese. Ludovico Sforza having usurped the government of Milan, Louis defeated him and sentenced him to perpetual imprisonment. This king was beloved by his subjects, as he showed his clemency on many remarkable occasions, and repealed some severe taxes. He married the princess Mary of England, sister to Henry VIII.

Francis I, Count of Angoulême, who had married the daughter of the late king, ascended the throne, 1515. This is the era of French literature. Francis loved and encouraged the arts. He was brave to excess, in his own person, but his valor and ambition endangered the safety of his kingdom. He contended unsuccessfully for the empire. The Duke of Bourbon, a powerful lord, who resented the indignities which he had received from the king and his mother, joined Charles V of Germany and Henry VIII of England in a confederacy to place Charles V upon the French throne. Francis, by his valor and address, delivered his kingdom from the threatened danger; but being unable to perform the conditions insisted upon by Charles after the fatal battle of Pavia, in which he said "he had lost everything but his honor," he was engaged in a war with the emperor till his death.

Henry II, son of Francis, 1547. The reign of this prince was distinguished chiefly by his wars with Pope Julius II and the emperor. Henry married Catherine de Medici, daughter of the Duke of Urbino. The battle of Saint Quentin, fought with the Spaniards, was lost by the French; but Henry's celebrated general,

the Duke of Guise, preserved the lustre of the French arms against the united powers of England, Spain, and Flanders. He took Calais from the English. Henry was unfortunately killed at a tournament, while celebrating the nuptials of the princess Elizabeth with Philip, king of Spain.

Francis II, son of Henry, 1559. The government of the kingdom, during this reign, was intrusted to Catherine de Medici. The king married Mary, Queen of Scots; and wholly guided by his mother and his uncles, the Guises, persecuted the Protestants, now known by the name of Huguenots. Worn out by the oppressions of the Catholic party, they at length took up arms; and this was the era of those dreadful civil wars, falsely termed religious wars, which desolated France, and which stain with indelible infamy the rulers of the French nation. Francis died after a short reign of two years. So little had the refinement of manners and the cultivation which flourished under Francis I softened the ferocity of fanaticism, that Calvinists were burned at the stake. The foundation of the national debt, the weight of which broke down the throne two hundred and fifty years after, was laid at this period.

Charles IX, second son of Henry II, succeeded in his minority, 1560. Catherine de Medici governed him; and, joining to great abilities boundless ambition and keen revenge, she prevailed upon the king to arm against the Protestants, whose growing numbers she dreaded. Civil wars followed: after which (on the memorable 24th of August, 1572) began that horrid massacre which extended through Paris, Lyons, Orleans, Rouen, Angers, and Toulouse. Thus, merely for difference in opinion, thirty thousand Frenchmen were inhumanly put to death by their vindictive enemies. Charles, after this, concluded a peace with the Huguenots; and a prey to severe remorse and to the effects of a dreadful disorder, he expired, being only twenty-three years of age.

Henry III, brother of Charles, 1574. He had been elected king of Poland; but on the death of Charles the Poles chose another king. Henry, fond of pleasure, fickle, and irresolute, was governed by Catherine de Medici. The civil wars were renewed between the Catholics and Protestants, one of which was called the Holy League, and headed by the Duke of Guise. Henry, fearing this nobleman had designs upon the crown, basely caused him to be assassinated, with his brother, the cardinal of Guise; and the king, shortly after, experienced the same fate from the

hands of Clement the monk. The detestable Catherine de Medici died just before her son, aged seventy.

THE BOURBONS.

Henry the Great, first of the house of Bourbon, 1589. He was bred a Protestant, and gallantly defended that cause when king of Navarre; but wishing to heal disturbances, and to conciliate the affections of his people, in 1593 he went openly to mass, though he was always supposed to be attached to his old opinions. Soon after this he published the edict of Nantes, which granted to the Protestants the exercise of their religion and the enjoyment of their estates, and made them eligible to public offices. After a glorious reign, Henry was assassinated by Ravaillac, a monk of the order of Jesuits, in the streets of Paris.

Louis XIII succeeded his father, 1610, when only nine years of age. Mary of Medicis, his mother, was appointed regent. Cardinal de Retz was his minister. They renewed the civil wars which had continued during the reigns of five princes, and destroyed nine cities, four hundred villages, and two thousand monasteries by their horrid ravages. Upon the death of De Retz, Richelieu became minister. He humbled Spain, and the spirit of the French nobility, defeated the Huguenots, and checked the ambitious views of Austria. To him Louis owed his authority, for on his own account the king was little feared or loved by his people.

Louis XIV succeeded his father when only five years old, 1643. His mother, Anne of Austria, with Cardinal Mazarin, conducted public affairs. This reign was the longest, and in its first part the most splendid of any in the French annals. Turenne and the Prince of Conde multiplied the conquests of Louis and obtained the most brilliant victories. Louis revoked the edict of Nantes and granted protection to James II, king of England. After the death of Mazarin, Colbert became prime minister. His exertions in his country's service are never to be forgotten. Louis was the munificent patron of the arts, and twice defeated William III; but Marlborough tore the laurels from his brow and humbled his pride. He lived to see the English government in the hands of Charles I, Cromwell, Charles II, James II, William and Mary, Anne, and George I.

Louis XV succeeded his great-grandfather, 1715. The Duke

of Orleans, who was appointed regent, endeavored to relieve the miseries of war and to restore commerce and agriculture. When the king became of age, the Duke of Bourbon and Cardinal Fleury were successively ministers. When Fleury died, Louis reigned alone, and, at the head of his army, obtained some signal victories in Flanders. A peace succeeded, and for seven years the arts and literature flourished in France. This king assisted the Pretender in his schemes upon England. The conclusion of his reign was unfortunate. His people, exhausted by war, loudly murmured; but Louis was deaf to their complaints and pursued his arbitrary measures till his death.

Louis XVI, 1774, grandson of the last king. Upon him fell the weight of those miseries which his predecessors had caused. At the commencement of his reign he endeavored to alleviate the distress of his subjects; but he was guided by the suggestions of his queen, Marie Antoinette, and his anxiety to preserve his absolute authority was the rock upon which he was shipwrecked. His people rebelled. An ardent and active spirit pervaded all ranks. Louis was compelled to submit to the conditions imposed by the National Assembly, who, not content with abolishing royalty, beheaded their king, January 21, 1793. His queen shared the same fate, October 16, 1793. These executions, contrary to existing laws framed by the Convention themselves, cast an eternal stigma upon the French nation, and caused the friends of real liberty to mourn the barbarities and excesses which have been committed by the abusers of that sacred name.

An era succeeded, marked by a political fanaticism of which history affords no other example, and by crimes, the recital of which fills the mind with horror.

The powers of Europe raised a crusade against revolutionary France; but though anarchy ruled within, France repelled foreign armies, while the different parties in the National Convention proscribed, banished, and massacred one another. The government of the Directory succeeded, but was overthrown by Napoleon Bonaparte, who was elected consul for life in 1802. This extraordinary person so won the affections of the nation by the number and splendor of his victories in Italy, Spain, Holland, and Belgium, that he converted the republic into an hereditary monarchy, in 1804. When consul, he changed empires into republics; when emperor, he changed republics into kingdoms. In 1812 he marched with an

army of four hundred thousand men into Russia, and reached Moscow, the ancient capital of the czars, only to witness its conflagration. A severe winter destroyed his army; but a few months saw him again at the head of three hundred thousand men, when he resisted the combined efforts of Europe. In 1814 Paris was occupied by the European powers, Louis XVIII was placed on the throne, and Napoleon withdrew, an exile, to the Island of Elba. In 1815 he again returned to Paris (from which Louis XVIII and his court fled with great precipitation), at the head of the very army that had been sent to take him prisoner. Levying a new army, he gained a victory over the Prussians, but lost the memorable battle of Waterloo on the following day, upon which he again abdicated the throne. He threw himself upon the generosity of the English nation, and was sent a prisoner to the Island of St. Helena, where he died on the 5th of May, 1821. Having no children by his empress Josephine, he unfeelingly divorced her, and married Maria Louisa, daughter of the emperor of Austria. By this princess he had a son, who took the title of Duke of Reichstadt and who died young. Louis XVII never reigned; he died at the age of ten years, from cruel treatment. Louis XVIII reigned ten years.

Charles X, of the house of Bourbon, ascended the throne in 1824. He attempted to obtain absolute power; and when he annihilated the charter the people rose *en masse*. After a sanguinary conflict in the streets of Paris for three days, in the month of July, 1830, he was obliged to abdicate the throne, from which he and his family were excluded by a decree of the Chamber of Deputies, in August, 1830. Prince Polignac, his minister, was brought to trial and condemned to solitary imprisonment for life, first at St. Michael's, afterwards in Ham Castle; but he was released on an appeal from the British people.

Louis Philippe, of the branch of Orleans, was descended from a brother of Louis XIV. He was elected king of the French on the 9th of August, 1830. He was the eldest son of Egalité, who so heartlessly voted for the death of Louis XVI. Louis Philippe was educated by Madame de Genlis. He wandered, as an outlaw, over the north of Europe and the States of America. The vicissitudes of his life were more extraordinary than those of any other monarch in modern history. He led armies to victory; taught the rudiments of literature for his support; and being restored to

his rank, and elevated still further to wear the crown of that kingdom in which he was once a criminal, he survived the attempts of seven different assassins on as many different occasions. A notable event of his reign was the conquest of Algeria, which was the beginning of the vast French domain in northern Africa.

In 1848 he was dethroned by a Parisian mob, and a second Republic of France was established, which lasted four years under the presidency of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a son of the great Napoleon's brother Louis and of the empress Josephine's daughter Hortense.

Napoleon III. Louis Napoleon overthrew the republic by violence on the 2d of December, 1851, becoming dictator. In the following year the empire was reëstablished, and he was proclaimed as Napoleon the Third, although the pretended Napoleon II had never reigned. He married a Spanish countess who was wholly unrelated to any royal house, but who came into world-wide fame as the empress Eugenie.

He joined with England and Turkey against the power of Russia, in the Crimean war (1854-6), and he aided the Italian kingdom of Sardinia against Austria in 1859, thus favoring the aspiration of the Italians for a national union. He modernized and beautified Paris. His reign saw the successful completion of the Suez canal, a French enterprise. His attempt to establish an empire in Mexico was a wretched failure. Hoping to fortify his dynasty by a successful conflict, he engaged in a war with Prussia, which he provoked in 1870. The French were overwhelmed by the Germans, who united as a single people. Napoleon was everywhere defeated, and was captured by the Germans. A Paris mob overthrew the empire in 1870, since which time there has been a general acceptance of the French Republic.

As a result of the war with France, the States of Germany, exclusive of Austria, were permanently united in a federation under the hereditary presidency of the king of Prussia, who is styled emperor of Germany.

Great Names in History.

I. From the Opening of the Christian Era to the Fall of the Roman Empire of the West.

Liv'y, born 59 B. C. at Padua. Died 17 A. D. Lived much at Rome. A great historian. Chief work, "History of Rome up to 9 B. C.," originally published in 142 volumes. Only 35 now extant.

Ov'id, born at Sulmo 43 B. C. A poet; works licentious. His "Metamorphoses" are well known. Banished by Augustus, 8 A. D. Died at Tomi, near the Euxine, 18 A. D.

Per'sius, born 34 A. D. in Etruria. Chief works, Six Satires and a Prologue. Died at about 30 years of age.

Sen'eca, born shortly before Christ at Cordova. A philosopher. Tutor of Nero, by whose orders he bled himself to death. Author of "Physical Questions," "Epistles," and, some say, ten Tragedies.

Lu'can, born at Cordova 38 A. D. Only extant work, his poem of "Pharsalia." Like Seneca, sentenced as a conspirator against Nero, to bleed himself to death, 65 A. D.

Plin'y (Elder), born 23 A. D. A distinguished naturalist. Once procurator of Spain. Suffocated during an eruption of Vesuvius, 79 A. D.

Plin'y (Younger), born at Comum 62 or 63 A. D. Proconsul of Bithynia. A great friend of Tacitus. Chief works, "Epistles" and "Panegyric on Trajan."

Quintil'ian, born perhaps in North Spain. A teacher of rhetoric at Rome. Chief work, "Institutes of Oratory."

Tac'itus, born in Nero's reign. A great historian. Son-in-law of Agricola, whose life he wrote. Author of "Annals," giving Roman history from death of Augustus to death of Nero; and also a work on Germany.

Sueto'nius, born about Nero's reign. Author of many historical works. Only complete work extant, "Lives of the Twelve Cæsars."

JU'VENAL, born about 40 A. D. A great satiric poet. His satires not published till his old age. Little known of his life.

GA'LEN, born in 131 at Pergamum. A great anatomist and medical writer. Studied at Alexandria, and practised at Rome. One hundred and thirty-seven of his works extant.

TERTUL'LIAN, born at Carthage in A. D. 160. Died A. D. 220. First of the Latin writers of the Church. Chief work, "His Apology for Christians," written about 198.

OR'IGEN, born in Egypt 185 or 186. At first head of the catechetical school at Alexandria. Editor and commentator of the Scriptures. Supposed to have died at Tyre, aged 69.

CYP'RIAN, Archbishop of Carthage in middle of third century. Martyred under Valerian, 258. Chief work, "Unity of the Church."

AM'BROSE, born about 340 in Gaul. Archbishop of Milan. A great foe of Arianism. Chief work, "De Officiis." Died 397.

EUSE'BIUS PAMPHI'LUS, born in Palestine about 264. Bishop of Cæsarea. Probably tainted with Arianism. Chief works, "Ecclesiastical and Universal History," and "Life of Constantine." Died 338.

ATHANA'SIUS, born at Alexandria in end of third century. Patriarch of Alexandria, 328. A great foe of Arianism, for opposing which he was deposed and banished. Wrongly called author of the Athanasian Creed.

GREGORY NAZIAN'ZEN, born early in fourth century in Cappadocia. For some time assistant to his father, Bishop of Nazianzus. Afterwards for a while Patriarch of Constantinople. Noted as a writer of theology and religious poetry.

CHRYS'OSTOM (Gold-mouth, from his eloquence), born at Antioch 354. Patriarch of Constantinople 397. His works contain valuable illustrations of life in the fourth and fifth centuries.

JEROME', born in 340 in Dalmatia. Especially learned in Hebrew. Founder of Monasticism. Chief work, a translation of the Bible into the Latin version, called the Vulgate; wrote also Commentaries and Lives of the Fathers. Died 420.

AU'GUSTINE, born in Numidia 354. Bishop of Hippo. Taught rhetoric for a while. The great foe of Pelagius. Chief works, "On the Grace of Christ," "Original Sin," and his own life, in the form of "Confessions." Died 430.

II. From the Fall of the Roman Empire of the West (476) to the Crowning of Charlemagne (800).

Sido'nius Appollina'ris, born in Gaul, 428. Bishop of Arverni (Clermont). An intimate friend of Theodoric. Wrote poems and epistles. Died 484.

Zosi'mus, a Greek historian of the fifth century. Chief works, "History of Rome from Augustus to Second Siege by Alaric."

Pris'cian, probably born at Cæsarea. Lived at the court of Justinian. Distinguished as a grammarian. Chief work, "Treatise on Latin Grammar."

Boe'thius, born at Rome, 455. Consul under Odoacer and Theodoric. Only Latin philosopher of his day. Chief work, "On the Consolation of Philosophy," written in the prison of Pavia, where he was executed, 526.

Proco'pius, born at Cæsarea, in end of fifth century. Lived at Justinian's court. Wrote "History of His Own Times," valuable as a link between ancient and mediæval history. Wrote also "Anecdota," a secret history of Justinian's court.

Cassiodo'rus, born about 470. Secretary of Theodoric. Wrote "History of the Goths," afterwards abridged by the Goth Jornandes. Other works were on orthography and education. Died aged nearly 100.

Greg'ory of Tours, born in Auvergne, 544. Bishop of Tours. Wrote in Latin a history of France up to his own day. Our only authority on the early Merovingian reigns.

Au'gustine, prior of St. Andrews at Rome. Sent by Gregory I, in 596, to preach to the English. The first Archbishop of Canterbury, where he died about 607.

Bede, born at Sunderland, about 673. An English monk. Surnamed the Venerable. Chief work, "History of the English Church," published about 734. Died in 735.

Win'ifred, born in Devonshire, about 680. Otherwise known as Boniface. Justly called the "Apostle of Germany," where he labored for thirty years. Made Archbishop of Mayence. Slain by the Frisians in 755.

III. From the Crowning of Charlemagne (800) to the Beginning of the Crusades (1095).

Al'cuin, born at York. Pupil of Bede. Lived much at the court

of Charlemagne, whom he taught. Wrote poetry, theology, and elementary science. Died in 804.

PAUL WAR'NEFRID (about 740-799), called the Deacon. An Italian. Connected first with the Lombard Desiderius. Taught Greek at the court of Charlemagne. A poet and historian. Chief work, "History of the Lombards."

E'GINHARD, an Austrasian Frank. Secretary of Charlemagne. Wrote a life of that monarch and other historical works. Thought to have died about 841.

JOHN SCO'TUS ERIGE'NA, born in Ireland. The only learned layman of the Dark Ages. Lived chiefly in France about the middle of the ninth century. Theology and metaphysics were his favorite studies. Died in 875.

ALFRED, king of England. Translator of the Psalms, Bede's History, Æsop's Fables, etc., into Saxon. Like Charlemagne, a great patron of learned men. Died 901 A. D.

AVICEN'NA, or ABEN SINA, born near Bokhara, 980 A. D. A great Arabian physician and philosopher. For centuries his great medical work, "The Canon," continued to be the standard authority even in Europe. Author of nearly one hundred works. Chief philosophical work, "The Remedy."

GUIDO D'AREZZO, born at Arezzo in Tuscany, in end of tenth century. A Benedictine monk. Famous as the inventor of our musical notation. His work "Micrologus" describes his plan of writing and teaching music. Died in middle of eleventh century.

IV. FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE CRUSADES (1095) TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE SWISS (1393).

ABELARD, born 1079, in Bretagne. A famous teacher of logic and divinity. Five thousand students attended his lectures at once. Charged by St. Bernard with heresy. Author of many theological works. Died near Chalons in 1142.

THOMAS AQUI'NAS, born 1227, at Aquino in Naples. A noble. Famed for theology. Chief work, "Summa Theologiæ." Wrote also Latin hymns. The great opponent of Duns Scotus. His followers, called Thomists, upheld the supreme efficacy of divine grace. Died 1274.

CIM'ABUE, born 1240, at Florence. A noble. The father of modern painting. Restored the study from living models. Worked in fresco and distemper, for oil-painting was not yet in use. Died in 1300.

JOHN DUNS SCO'TUS, born about 1265. Famed as a theologian. A Franciscan monk. Called the "Subtle Doctor." Had great controversies with T. Aquinas about free-will and divine grace. His followers called Scotists. Died in 1308.

DAN'TE, born 1265, at Florence. One of the Alighieri family. Much engaged in political feuds. The greatest of Italian poets. Chief work, "Divina Commedia," a vision of the invisible world. Died at Ravenna in 1321.

PE'TRARCH, born 1304, at Arezzo. A great Italian poet. Lived much at Avignon, at the papal court. Deeply attached to a lady called Laura, whose praises are sung in his soft, melodious "Sonnets." He wrote, besides, Latin verse and prose. Died 1374.

BOCCACCIO, born 1313, in Florence. The author of the earliest chivalrous poem in Italian, "La Teseide," from which Chaucer took the Knight's Tale, but more remarkable as the father of Italian prose. Chief work the "Decameron," consisting of one hundred tales. Died 1375.

WYC'LIFFE, born in Yorkshire. Professor of divinity, Baliol College, Oxon. The first English reformer. The father of English prose. Famous as the translator of the Bible into English. Died 1384.

FROIS'SART, born 1337, at Valenciennes. Son of a herald-painter. For some time secretary of Queen Philippa of England. Noted as a historian and poet. Chief work his "Chronicle," a brilliant picture of war and chivalry in western Europe from 1326 to 1400.

CHAU'CER, born 1328, in London. The first great English poet. Lived at the courts of Edward III and Richard II. Chief work, the "Canterbury Tales." Died 1400.

V. FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE SWISS (1393) TO THE DIET OF AUGSBURG (1630).

JOHN FAUST, a goldsmith and engraver of Mentz. One of the earliest printers. Associated for five years with Guttenberg in the working of a press with movable metal types (1450-55).

First work printed, "An Indulgence of Pope Nicholas V." Died 1466, at Paris.

THOMAS À KEM'PIS, born about 1380, at Kempen, near Cologne. Studied at Deventer. Became a canon of the monastery of Mount St. Agnes. Transcribed the Bible, the Missal, and other religious books. Good copyist. Said to have been author of four books of great merit, entitled, "De Imitatione Christi," but he transcribed these from older manuscripts. The work is more justly ascribed to John Gerson, of Paris, who died 1429. T. à Kempis died in 1471, aged 90.

AN'GELO POLI'TIAN, born in Tuscany, 1454. In after life took the name of Poliziano. A great friend of Lorenzo de Medici, whose children he educated. Professor of Latin and Greek at Florence. Wrote scholia and notes to many ancient authors. Translated into Latin the History of Herodian. Noted also for his Italian poems. Wrote "Orfeo," which is said to be the earliest specimen of the opera, or Italian musical drama.

LEONAR'DO DA VIN'CI, born in the Val d'Arno, below Florence, in 1452. A famous painter. Remarkable for his knowledge of other arts and sciences. His works are not many. One of his greatest is "The Last Supper," painted on the wall of the Dominican convent of the Madonna delle Grazie. Wrote very many treatises. Lived much at Rome, but died at Fontainebleau, in France, 2d May, 1519, aged 67.

SAN'ZIO RAPH'AEL, born at Urbino, 6th April, 1483. Perhaps the greatest of modern painters. Lived both at Florence and Rome. The "Transfiguration" usually considered his masterpiece. Famous for his Madonnas. Died on his birthday, 1520, at the early age of 37.

VI. FROM THE DIET OF AUGSBURG (1630) TO THE CLOSE OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR (1648).

NIC'COLO MACHIAVEL LI, born at Florence, 1469. At twenty-nine made Secretary of the "Ten." Employed much in political missions. Chief work, "The Prince," a book written to please and guide the Medici, and first published in 1532 at Rome, after his death. Wrote also, "Commentary on Livy" and "Short Chronicles" in terza rima. Died at Florence, June 22, 1527.

ALBERT DÜ'RER, born at Nuremberg, 20th May, 1471. A painter and engraver. His masterpiece said to be the drawing of Orpheus. Was the first man in Germany who taught the rules of perspective according to mathematical principles. Died 1528, in his 58th year.

LUDOVI'CO ARIOS'TO, born near Modena, 8th September, 1474. Gained the notice of Cardinal Ippolito by his lyrics. When a boy, wrote a drama. Is considered one of the best Italian satirists. His great work, "Orlando Furioso," a chivalric poem, in 46 cantos, describing the madness of the famous knight Orlando: it took ten years to write, and was published at Ferrara in 1516. Died 6th June, 1533, in his 59th year.

ANTO'NIO CORREGGIO, born in 1493 or 94, in the Duchy of Modena. A painter remarkable for his use of light and shade, and his pure, sweet coloring. His pictures, "Notte," "The Penitent Magdalen," "Venus Instructing Cupid," and "Ecce Homo," are very beautiful. Died March 5, 1534.

NIC'OLAUS COPER'NICUS, born at Thorn in Prussia, some say 19th January, 1472, others, February 19th, 1473. Spent much time in youth at mathematics and painting. Struck with the complex nature of the Ptolemaic system, he wrote a work on the "Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies," in which he fixes the sun as the centre of the system; his theory has been shaped out by Kepler, Galileo, Newton, etc., and freed from many errors. Died in 1543.

FRANÇOIS RABELAIS, born in 1483, at Chinon, in Touraine. A monk, then a physician. Appointed curé of Meudon. A great humorist. Chief work, a satirical romance, of which a giant Gargan'tua and his son are heroes. Swift is said to have imitated Rabelais in "Gulliver's Travels." Died in 1553.

M. AN'GELO BUONAROT'TI, born in Tuscany, 1474. The father of epic painting. Also a fine architect, engineer, sculptor, and poet. The chief architect of St. Peter's at Rome. Used to study the antique in the gardens of Lorenzo de Medici, who took him to his own house. His greatest existing picture, "The Last Judgment," the work of eight years, finished in 1541. His statues of "Lorenzo" and of "Moses" are magnificent. Died February 17, 1563, aged 89.

VECEL'LIO TITIAN, born in the Venetian State, 1477. Fellow-pupil of Giorgione. Painted the portraits of doges, popes, and

kings. Lived at the courts of Charles V and Philip II. It was his fallen brush that Charles V picked up, saying, "Titian is worthy of being served by Cæsar." Among his pictures may be named, "The Tribute Money." "The Martyrdom of San Lorenzo," "Bacchus and Ariadne." Died of plague in 1576, aged 99. The finest colorist that ever lived.

Cam'oëns, born at Lisbon or Coimbra, about 1517. The great poet of Portugal. Studied at Coimbra. Saw service against the Moors. Sailed to India. Returned a beggar after sixteen years' roving. Died in an hospital, 1579. His great poem, "The Lusiad," an epic national picture of Portuguese glory, of which Vasco di Gama is a leading hero, was first printed in 1572.

Paul Verone'se, born at Verona, about 1532. Son of a sculptor. An eminent master of ornamental painting. Painted the walls of the ducal palace at Venice. His chief works are there. "The Marriage at Cana," one of his finest, is in the Louvre. Died very rich at Venice in 1588.

Michel', Lord of Montaigne, born 1533. Son of a noble of Perigord. A judge in the Parliament of Bordeaux, and afterwards mayor of that city. Chief work, his "Essais," printed in 1580. Tinged with scepticism. Died 13th September, 1592, aged 60.

Torquato Tas'so, born at Sorrento, in 1544. A great Italian poet. Studied at Padua. Wrote a chivalric poem, "Rinaldo," at eighteen, also many love sonnets. His great poem, "Jerusalem Delivered," is an epic on the great Crusade, published at Parma, complete, in 1581, afterwards at Mantua in 1584. While on a visit to Rome to receive the laurel wreath, he died, 25th April, 1595, aged 51.

Edmund Spen'ser, born 1553. Second great English poet. Secretary to the Lordlieutenant of Ireland. Lived at Kilcolman, county of Cork. Chief work, "The Faerie Queene," an allegorical poem, written in a stanza of nine lines, called the Spenserian. Died 1598.

Ty'cho Brahe, born of noble parents at Knudsthorp, in Denmark, 14th December, 1546. The reviver of correct astronomy. Remarkable for his invention of instruments, and his numerous works. Much favored by Emperor Rudolph II. Died October 24, 1601.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, born 1564. The prince of dramatists. Born and died at Stratford-on-Avon. Lived chiefly in London. Wrote thirty-five plays between 1591 and 1614. Wrote also sonnets and tales. Died 1616.

CERVAN'TES (or SAAVEDRA), born at Alcalá de Henares, in Castile, October 9, 1547. Famed as the author of the romance "Don Quixote," first published in 1605. Wrote also "Journey to Parnassus," a satire on bad poets, and many novels. In early life a soldier. Died at Madrid, April 23, 1616, aged 69.

JACQUES-AUGUSTE DE THOU, born at Paris, October 8, 1553. A president of the Parliament of Paris. Made royal librarian by Henry IV. Chief work, a Latin history of his own time, from 1544-1607, in 138 books. Died at Paris, May 7, 1617. Wrote also Latin poems.

FRANCIS BACON, born 1561. Lord Chancellor and Viscount St. Albans. A great philosopher. Wrote ten volumes. Chief work, "The Instauration of the Sciences," a union of two books, namely, "The Proficience and Advancement of Learning" (1605), and the "Novum Organum" (1620). Died 1626.

JOHN KEP'LER, born at Weil in Würtemberg, 21st December, 1571. Studied at Tübingen. A great astronomer. Appointed Professor of Astronomy at Gratz in Styria, 1593-94. Afterwards principal mathematician to the emperor. Great work, his "New Astronomy," containing his book on the motion of Mars. Died of fever, November, 1630, aged 59.

LO'PE DE VEGA, born at Madrid, November 25, 1562. A great Spanish dramatist. At first a soldier. Served in the Armada. Then a secretary to the Inquisition. Then a priest. Remarkable for the number of his writings. Served as a model to Corneille and others. Five hundred and eighteen dramas remain from his pen, perhaps twice as many lost. Died August 26, 1635, aged 73.

PETER PAUL RU'BENS, born at Cologne, 29th June, 1577. Greatest painter of the Flemish school. Painted the "Descent from the Cross" (Antwerp), and the allegory of "War and Peace" (Nat. Gallery). Patronized by Charles I of England. Died at Antwerp very rich, May 30, 1640, aged 63.

ANTONY VANDYCK', born at Antwerp, March 22, 1599. Son of a glass painter. Pupil of Rubens. Came to England in 1632. Celebrated for his portraits. Those of Charles I and Strafford

very fine. Best historical picture, "The Crucifixion." Died in London, 1641, aged 42.

Galile'o, born at Pisa, February 15, 1564. First to use the telescope much in astronomy. Made his first telescope in 1609. Discovered mountains in the moon, satellites of Jupiter, Saturn's rings, etc. Great work, "Dialogue on the Ptolemaic and Copernican Systems." Died January 8, 1642, aged 78.

Nicholas Poussin, born at Andely in Normandy, June 19, 1594. A great painter. Among his works are the "Death of Germanicus," the "Taking of Jerusalem," and the "Last Supper." Died at Rome, November 19, 1665, aged 71.

VII. From the Close of the Thirty Years' War (1648) to the Beginning of the French Revolution (1789).

Molière (assumed name of Jean Baptiste Poquelin), born at Paris, January 15, 1622. A distinguished French dramatist. Also an actor. His first play, "L'Etourdi," produced in 1653. Among his many works "Le Misanthrope," "Le Tartuffe," "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" may be named. Died February 17, 1673.

John Milton, born December 9, 1608, in Bread Street, London. Greatest modern epic poet. Latin secretary under Cromwell. Chief works, "Paradise Lost," and "Paradise Regained." Chief minor poems, "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Comus," and "Lycidas." Chief prose works, "History of England," and the "Areopagitica," a plea for the liberty of the press. Died November 8, 1674.

De La Bar'ca Calderon', born of noble parents at Madrid, 1601. A great Spanish dramatist. Wrote about 500 pieces. Like Lope, a soldier in youth. Entered the Church at the age of 50. Then devoted his pen to writing "Autos Sacramentales," or sacred plays (like our Early Mysteries). Died in 1681, aged 80.

Pierre Corneille, born 1606, at Rouen. Son of an advocate. A great French dramatist. Made his fame by his tragedy of the "Cid." Other great works "Horace" and "Cinna," produced in 1639. His comedies are not first-rate. Died in 1684, aged 78.

Jean La Fontaine, born in 1621, at Château-Thierry. A French

poet. Lived a quiet, lazy life in patrons' houses. Chief work, his "Fables," chiefly selected from Æsop. Died in 1695. Succeeded Colbert as a member of the French Academy.

Jean Racine', born in 1639, at Ferté Milon, in Aisne. A French dramatic poet. His first tragedy, "La Thebaïde," brought out in 1664. "Phèdre" is considered his masterpiece. "Athalie" was his last play. Wrote also historical fragments. Died April 21, 1697, aged 59.

John Dry'den, born August 9, 1631, at Aldwinckle, in Northamptonshire. Educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. Poet-laureate in 1670. Chief works, a satire called "Absalom and Achitophel," an "Ode on St. Cecilia's Day," and a translation of the Æneid. Died May 1, 1700, aged 69.

John Locke, born at Wrington, near Bristol, August 29, 1632. Educated at Westminster School and Oxford. The great mental philosopher of his time. Great work, his "Essay on the Human Understanding." Died October 28, 1704, aged 73.

Jacques Benigne Bossuet, born at Dijon, September 27, 1627. Consecrated Bishop of Meaux in 1681. One of the greatest pulpit orators of France. Died at Paris, April 12, 1704, aged 76.

Nicolas Boileau', born in Paris, November 1, 1636. A noted French poet, remarkable for the moral tone of his writings. Chief works, his "Satires" and "Epistles," and the "Lutrin," a mock heroic. Died March 13, 1711, aged 74. A member of the Academy.

Fran'çois Fé'nelon, born at Perigord, in 1651. Archbishop of Cambray. One of the sect called Quietists. Denounced as a heretic by Bossuet. Best known work, the romance "Telemaque." Died January 7, 1715.

Joseph Ad'dison, born near Amesbury, in Wiltshire, May 1, 1672. Educated at Oxford. Much engaged in politics under Anne and George I. Famous for his prose papers in the *Spectator*. Wrote also "Cato, a Tragedy," a "Letter from Italy," and other poems. Died June 17, 1719, aged 47.

Sir Isaac New'ton, born at Woolsthorpe, Lincolnshire, December 25, 1642. Professor of mathematics at Cambridge. Discoverer of the law of universal gravitation. Remarkable also for his optical discoveries. Chief work, "Principia," a Latin treatise

on natural philosophy. Wrote also on Daniel and Revelation. Died at Kensington, March 20, 1727, aged 85.

CHARLES ROLLIN, born at Paris, January 30, 1661. Professor of rhetoric at Plessis. Chief work, "Belles Lettres" and "Ancient History." Died 14th September, 1741, aged 80.

JEAN BAPTISTE MAS'SILLON, born at Hières, in Provence, 24th June, 1663. The greatest of the French preachers. Made Bishop of Clermont in 1717. Died of apoplexy, 18th September, 1742, aged 79.

ALEXANDER POPE, born in London, May 22, 1688. Son of a linen-draper. Chief works, the "Dunciad," the "Essay on Criticism," the "Rape of the Lock," a mock heroic poem, and his translation of Homer's Iliad. Died May 30, 1744, aged 56.

ALAIN-RENÉ' LE SAGE, born May 8, 1668, at Sarzeau, in Morbihan. Wrote many plays. Translated much from the Spanish. Best-known work, his novel, "Gil Blas de Santillane," published between 1710 and 1735. Died at Boulogne, November 17, 1747, aged 80.

CHARLES MON'TESQUIEU, born near Bordeaux, January 18, 1689. A president in the Parliament of that city. Chief works, "Lettres Persanes," "Esprit des Lois," and a classic romance, "Temple du Gnide." Died February, 1755, aged 66.

GEORGE FREDERICK HAN'DEL, born at Halle, in Saxony, February 24, 1684. A great musician. Came to London in 1710. Composer of many grand oratorios, among which may be named "Saul," "The Messiah," and "Samson." Died April 13, 1759, aged 75.

FRANÇOIS-MARIE VOLTAIRE, born at Châtenay, near Sceaux, February 20, 1694. Author of the "Henriade," the only French epic poem. Among his historical works are the "Age of Louis XIV," "History of Charles XII," and "History of Russia." Wrote numerous plays and minor poems. Lived his last twenty years at Ferney, in Ain. An enemy of the Christian faith. Died 30th May, 1778, aged 84.

KARL LINNE' (LINNÆ'US), born at Råshult, in Sweden, May 13, 1707. A great botanist. Professor of botany and medicine at Upsala. Author of many works. Died January 10, 1778, aged 71.

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU, born at Geneva in 1712. Son of a watchmaker. A skeptic in religious matters. Author of many

operas, and eloquent literary works. Obliged to leave France on the publication of his "Contrat Social," an essay which maintains the equal rights of all men. Died July, 1778, aged 66.

PIETRO METASTAS'IO, born at Rome, January 6, 1698. A distinguished poet. Made imperial laureate at Vienna, about 1729. Among his sacred dramas may be named "La Passione," "La Morte d'Abel," and "Isacco." Died April 12, 1782, aged 84.

GEORGE, COMTE DE BUFFON', born at Montbard, in Burgundy, September 7, 1707. A great naturalist. Chief works, his "Histoire Naturelle." Died April 16, 1788, aged 81.

VIII. FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789) TO THE CLOSE OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

J. C. W. A. MOZART, born at Salzburg, January 27, 1756. A great musician. Lived much at Vienna. Chief works, "Don Giovanni," and the celebrated "Requiem," the latter written on his death-bed. Died of fever, December 5, 1792, aged 36.

JEAN FRANÇOIS MARMONTEL', born at Bort, in Limousin, in 1723. A writer of dramas and romances. Chief works, "Contes Moraux," and "Belisaire." Died at Abbeville in 1799, aged 76.

FRIED'RICH SCHIL'LER, born at Marbach, on the Neckar, November 10, 1759. Made Professor of History at Jena in 1789. The great dramatist of Germany. Chief works, "William Tell," and "Wallenstein." Wrote also a "History of the Thirty Years' War." Died in May, 1805, aged 46.

JOSEPH HAYDN, born at Rohrau, near Vienna, March 31, 1732. A great musical genius. Father of modern orchestral music. Greatest work, "The Creation," an oratorio. Died 29th May, 1809, aged 77.

CHRISTOPHER WIE'LAND, born at Oberholzheim, in Suabia, September 5, 1733. A leading German writer. Chief poem, the epic romance of "Oberon," published in 1780. Best novel, "Agathon." Died January 30, 1813, aged 80.

CHR. HEI'NE, born at Chemnitz, in Saxony, in 1729. A great classical scholar. Professor at Göttingen. Published editions of Homer, Virgil, Pindar, etc., etc. Died July, 1814, aged 85.

Antonio Cano'va, born at Possagno, in the Venetian territory, November 1, 1757. A great sculptor. Famous for his portraits of Popes; his groups, "Cupid and Psyche," "Hercules and Lycas," the "Graces," etc. Died in October, 1822, aged 65.

William Her'schel, born at Hanover, November 15, 1738. A great astronomer. Came to England as a bandman in the Hanoverian Guards. Improved the reflecting telescope. Discovered Uranus in 1781. Lived much at Slough, where he died, August 23, 1822, aged 84.

George Gordon, Lord Byron, born in London, January 22, 1788. One of the leading British poets. His chief work is "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage," written in the stanza of Spenser. Died at Missolonghi, of fever, April 19, 1824, aged 36.

Carl-Maria Von Weber, born at Eutin, in Holstein, December, 1786. A distinguished musician of the German school. His greatest work, "Der Freischütz," was brought out in 1822 at Berlin. Died in London, June 5, 1826, aged 40.

Ludwig Von Bee'thoven, born at Bonn, December 17, 1770. A great musician. Among his many works may be named the "Mount of Olives," an oratorio, and "Fidelio," an opera. Died March 26, 1827, aged 57.

Sir Walter Scott, born in Edinburgh, August 15, 1771. Famed as a poet, and still more so as a novelist. Began with a translation of Bürger's "Leonora" and the "Wild Huntsman." Chief poems, "Lady of the Lake," and "Lay of the Last Minstrel." Died September 12, 1832, aged 61.

Johann Wolfgang Von Göthe, born at Frankfort-on-the-Main, August 28, 1749. One of the most glorious names of Germany. Chief works, "Werther," "Wilhelm Meister," and "Faust." Died in 1832, aged 83.

Barthold George Nie'buhr, born at Copenhagen, August 27, 1776. A great historian. Lectured at Berlin and Bonn. Chief work, his "History of Rome." Died January 2, 1831, aged 55.

George, Baron Cuvier, born at Montbéliard, in Doubs, August 23, 1769. Remarkable as a naturalist. Chief works, his "Fossil Bones," and the "Animal Kingdom." Died May 13, 1832, aged 63.

Charles Nodier, born at Besançon, in France, April 29, 1780. A poet and general writer. His "Napoleone," "Jean Sbogar,"

and "Therese Hubert," are well known. Died January 27, 1844, aged 64.

FELIX MEN'DELSSOHN, born at Hamburg, February 3, 1809. A musician of the highest genius. Chief works, his music for the "Midsummer Night's Dream," and his sublime oratorios, "St. Paul," and "Elijah." Died November 4, 1847, aged 38.

JOHANN NEAN'DER, born at Göttingen, January 15, 1789. Professor of Theology at Berlin. Chief works, his "History of the Christian Church," and "Life of Christ." Died 1850.

PIERRE JEAN DE BERAN'GER, born at Paris, August 19, 1780. A noted lyric poet of France. He published five collections of songs. Died 1857.

ALEXANDER, BARON VON HUM'BOLDT, born at Berlin, September 14, 1769. The greatest descriptive naturalist of our day. Chief work, his "Kosmos," an account of the physical phenomena of the universe. Died in 1859.

LEOPOLD VON RAN'KE, born at Wiehe, in Prussian Saxony, December 21, 1795. A great historian. Professor at Berlin. Chief work "History of the Popes."

JUSTUS, BARON VON LIE'BIG, born at Darmstadt, May 8, 1803. A great living chemist. Professor at Munich. Has written much on the chemistry of agriculture and physiology.

CHRISTIAN GODFREY EHR'ENBERG, born at Delitsch, in Prussian Saxony, April 19, 1795. A famous naturalist and microscopist. Chief work on "Infusorial Animalcules."

THE ROMAN EMPERORS.

FIRST CENTURY.

	A. D.		A. D.
Augustus		Vitellius	69
Tiberius	14	Vespasian	69
Caligula	37	Titus	70
Claudius	41	Domitian	81
Nero	54	Nerva	96
Galba	68	Trajan	98
Otho	69		

SECOND CENTURY.

Adrian	117	Commodus	180
Antoninus Pius	138	Pertinax	193
Marc. Aurelius & L. Verus	161	Severus	193

THIRD CENTURY.

	A. D.		A. D.
Caracalla and Geta	211	Gallienus	260
Macrinus	217	Claudius II	268
Heliogabalus	218	Quintillus	270
Alex. Severus	222	Aurelian	270
Maximin	235	Interregnum for nine mo.	275
Gordian and his Son	237	Tacitus	275
Balbinus and Pupienus	237	Florian	276
Gordian the Younger	238	Probus	276
Philip the Arabian	244	Carus	282
Decius	249	Carinus and Numerian	283
Gallus and his Son	251	Diocletian	284
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FOURTH CENTURY.

Constantius and Galerius	305	Constantine II, Constans, and Constantius II	337
Constantine the Great	306	Julian (the Apostate)	361
He Sole Emperor	324	Jovian	363

WEST.

Valentinian	364	Valentinian II	375
Gratian	367	Honorius	395

EAST.

Valens	364	Arcadius	395
Theodosius	379		

FIFTH CENTURY.

Honorius		Anthemius	467
Valentinian III	425	Olybius	472
Maximus	455	Glycerius	473
Avitus	456	Julius Nepos	474
Majorian	457	Romulus Augustulus	475-6
Libius Severus	461		

EASTERN EMPERORS OF THE SIXTH CENTURY.

Anastasius		Justin II	565
Justin I	518	Tiberius II	578
Justinian I	527	Maurice	582

THE SAXON AND FRANKISH EMPERORS.

	A. D.		A. D.
Conrad I	911	Interregnum	1138
Henry I	918	Conrad III	1138
Otho the Great	936	Frederic Barbarossa	1152
Otho II	973	Henry VI	1190
Otho III	983	Philip	1198
Henry II	1002	Otho IV	1208
Conrad II	1024	Frederick II	1212
Henry III	1039	Conrad IV	1250
Henry IV	1056	William	1250
Henry V	1106	Interregnum	1256-73
Lothaire II	1125		

EMPERORS OF THE HOUSES OF HAPSBURG, LUXEMBURG AND BAVARIA.

Rodolph (Count of Hapsburg)	1273	Charles IV (of Luxemburg)	1347
Interregnum	1291	Wenceslas (King of Bohemia)	1378
Adolphus (Count of Nassau)	1292	Frederic (Duke of Brunswick)	1400
Albert (Duke of Austria)	1298	Rupert (Count Palatine of the Rhine)	1400
Henry VII of Luxemburg	1308	Jossus (Marquis of Moravia)	1410
Interregnum	1313	Sigismund (King of Hungary)	1410
Louis IV (of Bavaria)	1314		
Frederic III (of Austria) reigning rivals	1314		
Louis, alone	1330		

EMPERORS OF THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

Albert II	1438	Ferdinand III	1637
Interregnum	1439	Leopold I	1658
Frederick IV	1440	Joseph I	1705
Maximilian I	1493	Charles VI	1711
Charles V	1519	Maria Theresa	1740
Ferdinand I	1558	Charles VII	1742
Maximilian II	1564	Francis I	1745
Rodolph II	1576	Joseph II	1765
Matthias	1612	Leopold II	1790
Ferdinand II	1619	Francis II	1792

POPES OF THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

	A. D.		A. D.
Boniface VIII		Benedict XIII	1394
Benedict XI	1303	Innocent VII	1404
Vacancy for eleven months	1304	Gregory XII	1406
Clement V	1305	Alexander V	1409
Vacancy for two years and four months	1314	John XXIII	1410
John XXII	1316	Martin V	1417
Benedict XII	1334	Eugenius IV	1431
Clement VI	1342	Nicholas V	1447
Innocent VI	1352	Calixtus III	1455
Urban V	1362	Pius II	1458
Gregory XI	1370	Paul II	1464
Urban VI	1378	Sixtus IV	1471
Boniface IX	138?	Innocent VIII	1484
		Alexander VI	1492

POPES OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Pius III	1503	Pius IV	1559
Julius II	1503	Pius V	1566
Leo X	1513	Gregory XIII	1572
Adrian VI	1522	Sixtus V	1585
Clement VII	1523	Urban VII	1590
Paul III	1534	Gregory XIV	1590
Julius III	1550	Innocent IX	1591
Marcellus II	1555	Clement VIII	1592
Paul IV	1555		

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